

TRADE UNION EDUCATION IN THE BRITISH WEST INDIES

GLORIA GUMPER

Editor's Note: In our last issue (July 1952) we published an article by A. A. Carney on co-operative education in Jamaica and we felt that a useful complement to this would be one on trade union education.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND

The whole question of trade union education in the West Indies can be understood only in the context of the political climate of these territories, the growth of the unions and public attitudes towards them. The types of education and training which the unions themselves feel that their members need, and their educational needs as assessed by informed and experienced observers, often differ widely, and this difference appears to be based fundamentally on the nature of the political activity which unions should undertake. But no merely academic assessment of the degree to which unions should, for instance, participate in party politics, based on the experience of other territories, will help us to determine the real role of unions in the development of the British West Indian territories, and the part which trade union education will play in this development.

One paper on this subject proved much too short to discuss adequately trade union education in all parts of the British West Indies. It therefore seemed best to concentrate on Jamaica, where the pattern of union development has emerged most clearly, and where there has been, perhaps, most pre-occupation with the matter of trade union education.

In trying to give an outline of the political climate of these territories, the first point that must be made is the swiftness of political change. In 15 years a tide of unrest beginning with the man with no vote, the unskilled and the semi-skilled worker, the unemployed and the discontented, has resulted in widespread and far-reaching constitutional change. Universal adult suffrage, elected houses of representatives, ministers on the way to assuming full ministerial responsibility and the emergence of party politics mark the change from crown colony government towards full responsible government. With all these changes a strong sense of nationality, of nationhood, is beginning to emerge. But it must be pointed out that similar manifestations do not point towards the same ends in all the territories. A strong national sense may as easily be the result of a wish to develop independently of other B.W.I. territories, as of a desire for a federated British West Indies. It is part of the nature of rapid political and social change that aims differ widely, and that there should be confusion and disorganization in many parts of public and private life; but that there has been real progress toward the ideal of democracy can be observed in many ways, one of the most graphic being the change in the membership of the chief legislative bodies in the territories.

GROWTH OF TRADE UNIONISM

The growth of trade unions forms an integral part of the political history of this region. In all the territories both employer and employee associations can be registered as trade unions, and in more than one place this has been done. For the purpose of this paper, however, trade unions will be used to mean employee associations. The rise of these associations in Jamaica illustrates the general pattern of union development in the British West Indies. Until 1937, trade unionism was of interest to few workers, and generally ignored by management, although a Trade Union Law had been passed as

early as 1919. The first union was registered in 1922, the second in 1926. There were no further registrations until the flood began in 1937. Here, as elsewhere, the development of trade unionism waited upon a period of economic change and instability. The period of prosperity was ending in 1937 with export markets restricted, lower prices, banana disease, and a growing population of unemployed swelled by the return of emigrant labour from Panama, Cuba and other places. The employed knew the precariousness of their position in this uncertain state of things, and interest in unionism really began to take hold. In 1938 the storm broke, and the island was swept by serious labour disturbances, which soon after had their counterpart in the other territories. Out of this upheaval, the Hon. W. A. Bustamante, now head of the majority party in the House of Representatives, emerged as the leader of the labour movement. Feelings ran high, and the movement, though strong, was disorganized. Fears of continued violence and widespread civil disorder caused the government in Jamaica to take severely repressive measures, and leadership of labour became practically synonymous with sedition. This was also true in most of the other territories; and this attitude of mind towards unionism persisted throughout the early years of the second world war. It must in fairness be remembered that the sudden and swift growth of unions, membership in which increased by thousands each year, meant that they were without leaders who had experience of this type of organization and of industrial negotiation.

EDUCATIONAL POSSIBILITIES

It is quite clear that in these circumstances only two types of education would be of interest to the unions: firstly, the education of a generally hostile public to understand the reasons for, and the necessity of, their existence; and secondly, to procure training for leaders in union organization and negotiation. In the early years the first was understandably more important to the unions, struggling to keep their unwieldy membership together and simultaneously establish themselves on a firm foundation. Many newspapers were born and died in that time; most, finding that their circulation was only among the converted, became news and information sheets for members. The second type of educational need expressed itself in the formation of the Trades Union Council, with the object of unifying trade union effort in the orderly and progressive development of unionism in the island, to help systematize the handling of industrial disputes, and to prevent as far as possible the frivolous use of the strike as a weapon of negotiation. The Bustamante Industrial Trade Union (BITU) with its very large membership remained affiliated to the TUC for only a very short time; and when it left it caused a split in the trade union movement which was to become the basis of party politics in Jamaica.

Early in 1944, it became clear that the British Government intended to make changes in the island's constitution as the first step towards eventual self-government. The People's National Party, born in 1938, was closely connected with the TUC, the executive officers of both being in many cases the same. In 1944, Bustamante, with the backing of the BITU, launched the Jamaica Labour Party. The strength of these two parties, which emerged from the first adult suffrage election as the major contenders for political power in Jamaica, centred in the unions. The political nature of unionism has been a source of much concern to New Model trade unionists inside and outside the island, and many attempts have been made to plan and carry out educational schemes which have as their object the severing of unionism from party politics.

Union membership is for this purpose of three types, and the educational needs of each are different. It may be convenient to deal with the topic of trade union education by describing the needs of each of these groups, recording what has been done for them, and assessing the amount of success or failure, adequacy or otherwise of these educational schemes. The three groups are top leadership, branch leadership, and rank and file membership.

Top Leadership. As has been pointed out above, the swift growth of unionism threw up leaders who were inexperienced and unprepared for the vast job of organization they had to undertake. When the pattern of leadership emerged, it could be seen that it was of two kinds: firstly, of professional men who were part-time union officials, and secondly of men who devoted all their time to union affairs. The TUC leadership was of both kinds, the BITU of the second. It must also be remembered that leadership in the TUC implied leadership in at least one of the affiliated unions.

The educational demands of leadership at this level, were, and are, many. The leaders must know how to put over the idea of unionism to the general public as well as to the workers. To do this effectively, information would be needed on every aspect of unionism, its growth in other countries and the rights, duties, privileges and responsibilities of those who come together in unions. General knowledge of the economic, social and political development of the area is essential. Secondly, it would be helpful for them to have special knowledge of the whole machinery of negotiation, of the most effective kinds of trade union organization in the various industries, to have and to know where to get information relative to the fixing of wage rates, hours of work, levels of efficiency and such problems. Thirdly, special knowledge of union organization, the fixing and collection of dues, benefits, strike pay, the legal responsibilities of officers and members, and the thousand other concerns of internal organization would be of value.

Because of the over-riding importance of these leaders in the early years, and of the continuing importance of training new leaders, most of the educational work undertaken either by the unions or by interested outside bodies has been geared towards this group. Such bodies—the Labour Department, Colonial Development and Welfare (CD&W), the British Council and the University College of the West Indies—know that any scheme for trade union education will only be successful if it can secure the support of both the TUC and the BITU, as otherwise the organization will lay itself open to the charge of political bias. But this support has been difficult to obtain, and special courses in trade unionism have had to be abandoned. Some education in general knowledge and in the principles of unionism can be done obliquely, and in a few cases, free places have been offered to nominees of the unions at courses run by the Department of Extra-Mural Studies at the University College of the West Indies.

Up to now, CD&W has undertaken the most extensive schemes for union education in this area. It has arranged scholarships to Europe so that leaders may study union organization and the working of the machinery of negotiation at first hand; it arranged and carried through a training course for trade union officials in the British West Indies in Barbados in 1950. This course was generally supported, and was the first endeavour of its type to gain the support of both the big union blocs. In addition to this programme of education, the University College of the West Indies through its Department of Extra-Mural Studies has recognized that there exists here an important field of adult education to which it must contribute; and in Trinidad, Antigua, British Guiana, and Jamaica, courses have been arranged, sometimes in collaboration with the unions, at other times inviting the co-operation of the union, in a course open to the general public. The most interesting of the latter type is the course in Personnel Management and Industrial Relations run by the Department of Extra-Mural Studies in Jamaica from October 1951 to April 1952. It might be instructive to describe this course at some length, as it may well turn out to be the best means of circumventing any difficulties unions may feel in co-operating in educational schemes, and at the same time set out a new plan of teaching which is of immediate benefit in a number of ways to both management and unions.

The Personnel Management and Industrial Relations Course. Training courses such as that run by CD&W can, of necessity, touch only a few persons from any one territory. In addition to the greater numbers which it could accommodate, the Personnel Manage-

ment and Industrial Relations course combined the general and special approaches to training in a way that has proved most successful. Both management and labour were invited; the Labour Department gave its co-operation and support and helped to secure the interest of the unions. One hundred and ten persons enrolled, including members of both union blocs, industry and government. Industry was represented by members of the managerial staffs of sugar, bauxite mining, textiles, tobacco manufacture, leather, cement, the printing trade, wholesale and retail merchandise. The programme included lectures on topics such as Recruitment and Selection, Job Analysis, Pay Plans, Labour Turnover, Absenteeism, Merit Evaluation, Staff Development and Training, Supervision, Employer-Employee Relations, Labour Management Negotiation, Labour Legislation in Jamaica, Safety Administration, Industrial Fatigue. Problems in personnel administration were the topic of some very lively discussion classes.

Dr. Simon Rottenberg, Director of the Institute of Industrial Relations in the University of Puerto Rico, gave three special weekend courses in January of this year to members of this course. The general topic was Industrial Relations, and the following subjects were dealt with: Why do workers join unions?; Trade Union Objectives; Trade Union Structure and Government; The Nature and Scope of Collective Bargaining; Wage and Non-Wage Elements in Collective Bargaining; The Administration of the Collective Agreement; and The Union Shop. Full discussions of the fixing of wage rates and the union shop were arranged with specially invited representatives of management, labour and the Labour Department. The important thing about the whole course, arranged by the Staff Tutor in Public Administration, Eric James, is that for the first time in the history of unionism in the British West Indies labour, management and members of the public service sat down together as students and fully explored all aspects of a subject of interest to all in an atmosphere of free discussion. It is the general feeling among union members of the class that this course was of more value to them than one specially arranged for their benefit would have been. Even in the short duration of the course some alteration in the thinking of management and labour about each other began to show in the discussions. It is too early yet to tell whether or not any permanent changes in thinking may have been effected.

Along with this willingness to sit down together with industry and government, the trade unions are crystallizing other attitudes toward outside schemes for the education of their leaders. The success of the first CD&W training scheme has been mentioned, but it is worthy of comment that invitations to a second course on similar lines to be held by CD&W in Barbados in April of this year were refused on the ground that officers could not be spared to go.

Branch Leadership. Training of branch leaders poses some special problems. While the ideal type of educational programme for this level of leadership might include general courses to give them knowledge of the economic, social and political background to their activities, as well as training in the special duties and responsibilities of the branch leader, it may not, in practice, be possible to give them such teaching. The branch secretary is often a barely educated person, who has some difficulty in grasping even the rudiments of proper organizational practice, and who tends rather to think in terms of his power to make things awkward for management than of his duties and responsibilities. The difference in education and training between the top and branch leadership is so marked that it constitutes a major weakness in the trade union movement in Jamaica, and already the distance between central executive and branch can be seen in the number of wildcat strikes that are called, sometimes in the middle of a negotiation being conducted by the executive.

Education at this level has been looked upon largely as the business of the unions themselves. The TUC appointed an education officer, and a scheme of training was devised. It was never fully carried through, but it is of interest because it was discussed

at length during a recent investigation in the People's National Party on assumed ideological differences among its executives.

The lack of interest of the unions in undertaking instruction of their branch leaders with the resulting divergence mentioned above, is a source of concern to the Labour Department. The Labour Adviser has tried hard to stimulate interest in this type of educational work, and latterly he has received help from the British Council, which has made available to him a number of study boxes on trade unionism. Union response to the invitation to join in this educational programme has not been particularly encouraging. These boxes are of course made up with a bias towards the development and practice of British trade unionism and the only really valuable part may be that which George Scott, the Labour Adviser, proposes to contribute on the history and development of unionism in Jamaica. Having in mind the educational level of those whom it is proposed to educate by means of study boxes, it is clear that the success or failure of this scheme will depend in a large measure on the kind of leadership these study groups get. It is to be hoped that a programme of training for study group leaders will be carried through before the boxes are put to general use.

Rank and File Membership. There has been no specific programme of training or education for this class of union member, either inside or outside the unions. Any teaching on trade unionism or related matters which a rank and file member gets is usually of his own seeking. Some few union members, usually young and ambitious, can be found in evening classes, such as the classes in economics and West Indian history given by the Department of Extra-Mural Studies.

Among the rank and file membership many are illiterate or nearly so. It might be that here may be found a useful field for literacy teaching. The incentive to learn would not be far to seek, and relevant material for instruction ready to hand. In fact, the question of teaching material is one of concern at all levels of trade union education. Much of the necessary information has not yet been made the subject of proper research, or is not available in written form for the use of those who need it. A new course of instruction for trade union leaders is beginning in Barbados, for which CD&W has allocated the sum of £5,000. Lectures will be given to 20 British West Indian trade union officials on trade union history and organization, labour legislation, labour relations and arbitration machinery, as well as on the social history of the area, its economics, agriculture and welfare services. It is suggested that so large a sum of money could much more usefully be spent on the research and preparation of material for use throughout the West Indies of union members of all ranks.

It can be seen from the foregoing that trade union education in Jamaica has not developed on any orderly or coherent lines. While the need for training and knowledge at all levels is acknowledged, the unions do not yet give this aspect of their work the attention it deserves. This may be because unionism, in any real sense, is still in its infancy. It has advanced rapidly in numbers and in strength, and it has held on to its advances, but there are weaknesses apparent in the structure that only a proper system of education can combat.

THE MAN WHO TAUGHT HIS NATION TO READ

J. ALUN THOMAS

FEW men have accomplished more in their span of life than a humble Welshman by the name of Griffith Jones. He was born in 1683 in Penboyr, one of several parishes lying on the delightful uplands above Tivyside in South Wales, a land distinguished not only for its compelling beauty, but also for its rich literary culture and for the fiercely independent nature of its people.

Griffith Jones was a man of the people and his earliest years were spent in helping the shepherds and in learning the trade of woodturning. It is true that he spent a few years at the Carmarthen Grammar School but he never went to a university nor to one of the well-known academies of the period; yet this man who had scant sympathy from the Church leaders of his day, this humble country parson, was almost solely responsible for teaching most of his fellow-countrymen to read and, almost without realizing it himself, he became one of the pioneers of adult education. Before we explain how he succeeded in his task let us take a brief glance at the state of Wales in the days of his boyhood, round about 1700.

The people were generally poor and though the population of the whole country was well under half a million, yet it proved an almost intolerable strain on the agricultural technique of the time which, like most other things, lagged well behind whatever progress was achieved in England. Neighbourliness and sociability reached a high level and there was little actual want. The Church fared badly, and the ordinary clergy to whom the people looked for light and knowledge were often distressingly poor. For most of the eighteenth century the four Welsh bishoprics of St. Asaph, Bangor, St. David's and Llandaff, were in the main filled by monoglot Englishmen, alien to the tradition and language of the people, and with scant sympathy for their national aspirations.

An attempt at popular education had been made by the Commonwealth Government in 1650 with its 'Act for the Better Propagation of the Gospel in Wales'. About 60 free schools, mostly of the grammar school type, were founded, but the Restoration of 1660 dealt a fatal blow to the movement. A further attempt was made by the Welsh Trust of Thomas Gouge between 1672 and 1681. Notable leaders like Baxter and Tillotson lent Gouge their support and well over 300 simple schools of the three R's type were set up in Wales. The Welsh Trust also occasioned the growth of a literary movement led by Stephen Hughes but Gouge's death in 1681 was the beginning of the end of this courageous venture.

A considerable step forward in the education of the poor was the extensive work of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge founded in 1698. At first confined mainly to London, its influence spread rapidly into the rest of England and Wales. The society's aim was to combat 'vice and immorality owing to the ignorance of the principles of the Christian religion by the promotion of Christian knowledge by erecting catechetical schools, by raising Lending Catechetical Libraries and by distributing good books'.

The society proved an admirable friend to Wales, and large quantities of bibles, prayer books and religious classics in both English and Welsh entered the country and were either distributed free or sold at very small cost. Through its correspondents in all parts of Wales the society set up nearly 100 schools, and so infectious was its enthusiasm for spreading knowledge that several hundred more schools of the same simple pattern were set up in all parts of Wales, and by 1714 as many as 12 diocesan and parish libraries had been established at suitable centres to aid necessitous clergy and others. These schools, though as a rule free, were in some places fee-paying; the three R's

were again in evidence with the pleasant addition of singing (which was not included in the English schools) and some simple needlework for the girls, the full course taking about four years.

But the fine and consistent effort of the SPCK was too limited in scope, too inadequate in conception, to meet the needs of the people, and even by the third decade of the century the country's condition was appalling, groaning as it was under the heavy burden of illiteracy and vice. Could the illiterate masses ever be taught to read and think? A country parson in South Wales, by now Rector of Llanddowror, a brother-in-law of Sir John Phillips, noted educationist and friend of the Wesleys and of Francke, felt sure that he had the answer to the problem. Griffith Jones was a brilliant and persuasive preacher whom thousands of people would walk miles to hear. An *enfant terrible* among the clergy, honoured as a saint by his hearers, condemned and insulted by his enemies, this man found an answer to the grave problem of the times, and by his devotion and persistence brought about a national revival.

The fiery preacher realized by 1730 that an illiterate people could never be saved by the pulpit alone. Education there must be, free, simple in its aim and method, and education in the language of the people. He had already played his part in the SPCK school movement and the society was to help him in his new project—that of the Circulating Welsh Charity Schools.

His plan was to train schoolmasters in his parish at Llanddowror and send them itinerating from one parish to another at the invitation of the incumbent, the school in any one place remaining for about three months and held generally in the winter months when the farmers were not busy. They had to be entirely free so that even the poorest of the poor could benefit, and adults as well as children were invited to them. The Dean of Bangor, Dr. John Jones, a man who had already given practically all his fortune to educate the poor, describes the poverty of the people in the Bangor diocese in a letter to the SPCK dated 20 June 1716: 'That it is impossible in those parts to fix the poor children constantly and regularly at School, because they must ever and anon to beg for victuals, there being no poor rates settled in those parts. It is the constant method to relieve the poor at their door, and the houses of the several Parishes being scattered about at considerable distances from each other increases the difficulty the poor Children labour under, and in harvest the poor parents take them out of School, and declare they had rather they should not be taught at all than be debarred the use and service of them.'

The reformer set to work on his great task in 1737 and neither the death of his patron Sir John Phillips in that year nor the jibes and jeers of envious critics deterred him from consecrating all his energies to the realization of his vision. Mean detractors complained that children and adults were being taken away from agriculture and rendered 'unfit for manual work, and Griffith Jones was criticized in a similar way to the Order of the Frères des écoles chrétiennes, who had already done excellent work in spreading elementary education in France.

There were encouraging signs, too, for a number of clergy declared solidly for Jones and assisted him generously in his appeal for funds; squires with Methodist sympathies, and scientists and clergy in England, were to prove strong financial supporters. But the reformer's greatest gain was to have at his side for the best part of 20 years a collaborator of energy and ability in Madame Bridget Bevan. Handsome and accomplished, she stood by Jones' side right through to his death.

What were the schools like? Let Jones speak for himself as far as their working was concerned: 'Where a Charity School is wanted and desired, or like to be kindly received, no pompous Preparations or costly Buildings are thought of, but a Church or Chapel, or untenanted House of convenient Situation, is fixed on; and publick Notice given immediately, that a Welch School is to begin there, at an appointed Time, where all Sorts that desire it are to be kindly and freely taught for Three Months; (though the Schools are continued for Three Months longer, or more, when needful; and then removed to another Place where desired).'

Masters toiled for three or four hours every night or evening and instructed at that time from two to three times as many as were taught in the daytime. Three months was the time allotted for learning to read and to understand the Catechism—the three R's were absent from the circulating schools. In his annual report for 1745-46 (the reports, by the way, were called *Welch Piety* probably in imitation of Francke's *Pietas Hallensis*) Jones writes: 'We do not meddle with teaching any of them Lettering or Cyphering, which would require more Time than their Circumstances and more Expense than my little Cash can afford'. His object was not to make gentlemen so much as Christians; he realized the importance of social discipline but his real emphasis was on winning souls and the engendering of faith. The religious aspect predominates over all others.

The reformer was eminently practical; instruction was given in the language of the people, and the Welsh language had an overwhelming preponderance at the time. There is no scholar yet who has toiled patiently through the manifold reports who has not been amazed at the sweeping success of the schools. One village after another was cured of illiteracy. Slowly but surely darkness was being eliminated from the land. The demand for schools far exceeded the supply of teachers and books available. The people as a whole began to show zeal for learning to read, and to think. As often as not, the Bible itself would be their reader, the alphabet and simple word constructions being printed on the fly-leaf; there, indeed, was infinite material for the learners to ponder over. How was it that illiterate adults were able to read in so short a time? One answer lies in the fact that in its spelling the Welsh language is regular and phonetic.

Griffith Jones' methods were rough and simple by modern standards, but nevertheless the people's interest and keenness were thoroughly aroused. 'I am also', he says, 'well assured, by a Letter from a truly venerable Correspondent, that, in England, a certain Gentlewoman, Mrs.— had Six and Twenty Children taught at Five Years Old to read in Three Months, by making them spell and read very slow and distinct, over and over again. 'He adds', the common Fault is reading too fast. I am, indeed, willing to grant, that all cannot learn so fast: but I hope it will be allowed, that they may be taught much sooner than usual, as all the Welch Scholars are, where their Teachers are well chosen and diligent in their Business, and carefully inspected by their Ministers.'

In some parishes the school would remain for one, two or even three quarters of a year, moving from one place to another in the parish. Much depended upon the keenness of the local incumbent and upon the supply of funds available. In *Welch Piety 1748-49* we hear this about the schools: 'Left, indeed, they were, to continue for a whole Year in some places, rather than we would disoblige such good Clergymen and others, as very earnestly desired them so long.' The enthusiasm aroused among the masses can be gauged by the heavy demand for spectacles so that the older pupils, many of them septuagenarians, could benefit from the instruction. In Winks' *History of Adult Schools*, published in 1821, we find this delightful verse:

*While numbers never taught in youth
In gladness now the word of Truth
Read with facility:
Old Age in spectacles appears,
Bending, beneath its weight of years,
To learn the A.B.C.*

Jones was meticulously careful with his accounts and made the fullest possible use of every penny that he received. He knew what the people wanted, and he knew how to get the maximum amount of education at the minimum cost. He writes in one of his reports: 'The circumstantial expenses in Building etc., for only one Charitable Nursery in some Places, or less than one half of such a Sum, would serve to instruct Five Thousand poor People or more in this way.'

Apart from malicious attacks by his greatest detractor, John Evans, the non-resident

rector of the neighbouring parish of Egwyls Gymun, Jones experienced some trouble with some of the masters, particularly those who were inclined to Methodism, a movement which was much to the dislike of the clergy. But he strove to exercise discipline in this as in other matters, and in his voluminous correspondence he shows great sagacity and common sense. Though a loyal priest of the Church who never neglected his flock and taught the Church's doctrine wholly, there is plenty of evidence that he was sympathetic at heart to reformation within the Church, and we have no record of his being hostile to churchmen with Methodist leanings. He strove to get the best possible masters for his schools. Writing to a friend on 16 August 1739 he says: 'All possible Care is taken, that none be employed as Masters or Mistresses in the Schools, but such as are not only tolerably well qualified to teach to Read, but such as appear to have more of a Religious Impression upon their Minds than is common; and whoever of them discovers a contrary Disposition (as two only, I think, have done this Year) they are to be discharged immediately. Many of the Masters now are such as have themselves been taught in these Schools.'

His schools were badly equipped and much of his time was taken up with appeals for new impressions of the Welsh Bible and suitable books for instruction. What was available for him was hardly better than the English 'battledores' of the period, and in themselves they were of very little help. For this reason the careful selection and training of the masters was all-important.

By modern standards the contribution of Griffith Jones to national education looks very slight, but in its day it fulfilled a truly national demand and that is why the schools were so well attended.

Between 1737, when he began the work, and 1761, the year of his death, no fewer than 3,495 schools were held with 158,237 scholars attending them. When we remember that most of the masters had many more pupils attending in the evening than in the day classes, it is fair to compute a grand total of at least 350,000 to 400,000 scholars, a figure that is accepted by the best authorities. When we consider that the whole population of Wales in the middle of the eighteenth century was about 400,000, the figures go to prove beyond doubt that this remarkable pioneer working almost single-handed, realized his dream of teaching a whole nation to read in his own lifetime. When we consider the far-reaching scope of the service given, for every county in Wales was amply catered for; when we note, too, the administrative difficulties, the constant appeal for books, the raising of funds, the training of teachers, the handling of endless correspondence, the publication of the well-documented annual reports, it is difficult to realize that all this was planned and carried out by a man racked with asthma who had already passed his fiftieth year at its inception. His faith, ardour and courage are almost Pauline in their grandeur. Unaffected by cynical enemies, undeterred by the coolness of those in high places who should have been among the first to help him, this lonely pioneer toiled on and almost single-handed saved a nation and its language from perishing. It was his achievement to bring into the homes of the people the power to benefit by the rich prose of Bishop William Morgan's translation of the Bible. In a letter to a fellow-clergyman, 24 December 1744, he reveals his passion for his native language:

'I was born a Welshman, and have not yet unlearned the simple Honesty and Unpoliteness of my Mother Tongue; nor acquired the oiliness of the English Language, which is now refined to such a degree, that a great Part of it is near akin to Flattery and Disimulation'. As David Williams has rightly pointed out in his recent book, *The History of Modern Wales* 'it would be difficult to exaggerate the greatness of Griffith Jones' work. His conception of education was admittedly narrow, but he should be judged only on the basis of his motive, which was to save men's souls. Nor did he show any great originality in ideas. His greatness lay in his remarkable powers of organization and in his ability to translate his purpose into practical form on a grand scale. He helped to make the Welsh a literate nation, and his circulating schools were the most important

experiment in religious education in the eighteenth century not only in Wales but in Britain and all the British dominions'.

We can go further and claim for him a place as an honoured pioneer of adult education. His schools catered for all ages. Before the end of the century Wales had its own peculiar Sunday Schools which to this day are for adults as well as children; such were the humble nurseries which provided a strong and abiding framework for the development of adult education throughout the land.

LITERACY CAMPAIGNS IN THE U.S.S.R.

E. KOUTAISSOFF

THE expansion of free primary education in the latter years of Tsarist rule had, admittedly, been on a large scale, yet, in 1917, among the Russians themselves over half the population, particularly the older age groups, could neither read nor write. The position was even worse among the non-Slav minorities of the eastern and northern borderlands. Some tribes in the far north had no written language at all.

In December 1919, even before the Civil War had been won, the Soviet Government issued a decree ordering all illiterates aged 8-50 years to start learning. Existing schools were to provide facilities and new schools were to be established. Workers attending classes were entitled to shorten their day by two hours without loss of wages. The People's Commissariat of Education was given powers to commandeer clubs, churches, private houses and suitable premises on factory sites to accommodate the new classes. Criminal proceedings were threatened against evaders.

However, the power of the revolutionary government was still precarious and the economic collapse of the country too complete for the decree to have any real effect. Nevertheless, an Extraordinary Commission for the Liquidation of Illiteracy was set up, and a voluntary society created with the aim of combating illiteracy, which set itself the task of making the entire population literate by 1927, the tenth anniversary of the Revolution. It became the duty of members of the Communist Party and the Communist Youth League to persuade people to join classes, or actually to organize them. Trade unions and co-operatives set up classes for their members, particularly the juveniles.

Unions of rail and waterway workers did much pioneer work, since their influence extended into remote and largely rural areas, and it was far more difficult to organize classes in the countryside than in the towns. Village teachers, doctors, petty officials, Red Army soldiers on leave, boys and girls who had attended school, in fact all who could read and write were called upon to take part in the 'cultural campaigns' and set up *likpunkts* (points for the liquidation of illiteracy).

There was a great shortage of books, made more acute by the scrapping of many textbooks for political reasons or in connexion with the spelling reform. Writing appliances and abaci for the teaching of arithmetic were equally scarce. The initial three-month courses proved too short to prevent relapse into illiteracy. Ten-month courses were provided later, during which time adults were expected to assimilate the syllabus of the two junior grades of the primary school. In the non-Russian republics, 220 hours were regarded as a minimum for learning to read and write in the vernacular; another 150 hours were required to master elementary arithmetic.

Funds provided by local authorities were supplemented by the central government to the extent of about 20 per cent in the central provinces and more in the national

republics. Trade unions and co-operatives paid the expenses of courses for their own members, and the richer unions contributed to those of the poorer.

Illiteracy was not liquidated by 1927, but in that year the number of adults attending classes exceeded the million mark. In 1929, attendance was made compulsory for men in the military service age group. Really spectacular progress took place in the early thirties in connexion with the industrialization of the country, when large numbers of the rural population flocked to the new construction sites and an all-out effort was made to raise the technical efficiency of the workers. Incentives to learn increased as well as opportunities. In 1930-32, general compulsory education for all children aged 8-12 was introduced throughout the Soviet Union, and this checked any further rise in the number of *young* illiterates.

In 1930-32, attendance at schools for adults reached the peak figure of 5-6 million. A few years later, Kalinin estimated that, since the Revolution, some forty million men and women had learnt to read and write in their own language; even in backward areas literacy had become a condition of office for chairmen and members of village soviets and collective farm managements; the plan of the Seventeenth Party Conference to liquidate illiteracy in the course of the second Five-Year Plan period (1933-37) seems to have been more or less achieved. Although an order of the Minister of Education of the RSFSR dated 23 March 1946 (prescribing a census of illiterates and immediate steps to organize special classes) suggests that illiteracy still persists in the remoter districts, it is no longer a mass phenomenon. On the whole, within the last 30 years the population of the U.S.S.R. has achieved literacy.

LITERACY AMONG NATIONAL MINORITIES

The task proved particularly difficult among the small tribes of fishermen and trappers scattered in the forest and tundra belts of the north; they had no alphabets of their own and spoke a variety of languages. To teach the three R's to the Turki-speaking peoples of Central Asia presented a different but not an easier problem: their upper classes had a long tradition of Islamic culture, but the masses, in particular the women, were illiterate.

For political and economic reasons the spread of literacy among the peoples of Central Asia was a matter of urgency. Literacy is not an aim in itself, but a pre-requisite for political enlightenment and economic progress. So long as they remained illiterate, backward and, often, nomadic, these people were bound to remain impervious to Communist culture.

The habits of reading and writing can be acquired by the masses only if books are printed in a legible alphabet and written in their vernacular language, preferably spelt phonetically. For this reason, the difficult Arabic script was replaced by the simpler Latin alphabet (1926-27), a reform similar to that which took place in Turkey in 1928. All attempts at creating a unified 'literary' Turki language had, however, been resisted and the use, enrichment and study of each particular dialect was encouraged.

Special alphabets based on the Latin letters were devised for the various northern tribes by the Institute of Northern Peoples in Leningrad (1930-32). The new alphabets were adopted hastily and independently by each nationality. The result of this lack of co-ordination was a maze of signs (125 for 68 languages) which, although based on the Latin alphabet, were complicated by various diacritic signs. The majority of the inhabitants of the U.S.S.R., i.e. the Russians, Ukrainians, Byelorussians, and some smaller nationalities of Finnish origin (Mordovians, Mari, etc.), had continued to use the Cyrillic characters and in 1938-39 the latter replaced the Latin in practically all the languages of the U.S.S.R. Apart from eliminating meaningless discrepancies in the spelling of related languages, it made possible the unification of the system of telegraph transmission and that of shorthand-typing; moreover, it facilitated the learning of Russian, which became a compulsory school subject in 1938.

In the early twenties, the method used to teach reading was that of 'whole words'. Later it gave way to the older 'analytical-synthetical' method—words were 'analyzed' into sounds (usually syllables rather than letters) and syllables 'synthetized' into words. When dealing with adults and with alphabets designed to make spelling practically phonetic, the element of logical reasoning yields quicker results than visual memory on which the method of whole words is based. Beginners are taught only a few letters at a time: these letters are not introduced in their alphabetical order, but the easiest to identify as regards sound and shape and the most frequently occurring are taught first. By manipulating half a dozen symbols (detached cardboard letters) the learner discovers how a word is built up from sounds. As he masters more and more letters, the words he can build up become longer and more varied.

The extreme shortage of books in the early years of the Soviet régime gave rise to the method of posters. The teacher displays a poster and uses it as subject matter for a short talk. The picture on the poster must be very simple in outline, for primitive people have to learn to 'read' a picture, and the talk must be very short, as they are not used to a sustained effort of attention. Then the slogan on the poster is deciphered, the sentence is broken up into words (the beginner is not 'word conscious'), the letters identified and used to build up other words. The poster method has the advantage of providing the material for a cultural talk, while the slogan can be read on the principle of the 'whole sentence' method, the advantage of which is to prevent the learner from concentrating on mechanical deciphering to the extent of losing his grasp of the meaning.

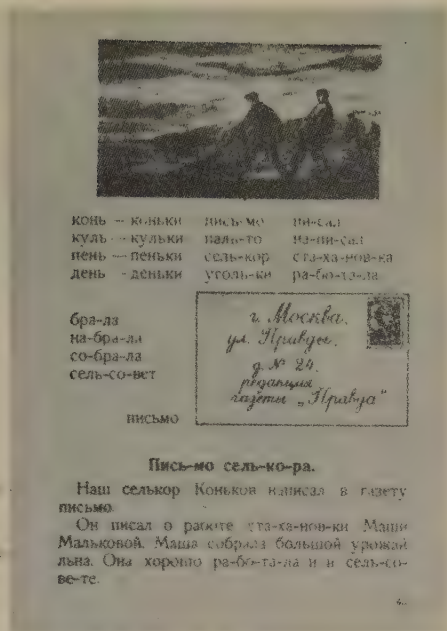
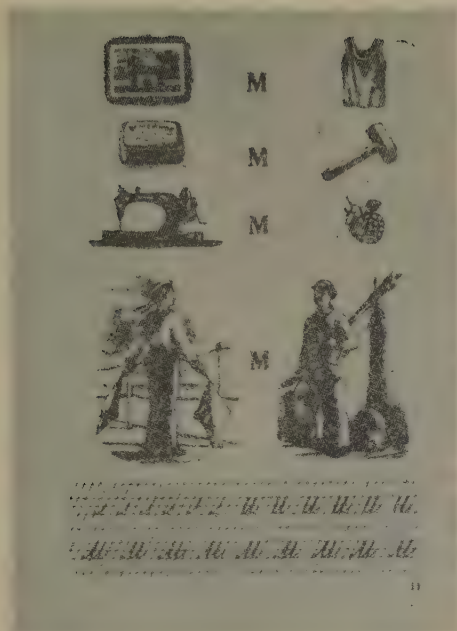
Figs. 1-2 show pages of a Russian primer for adults; fig. 1 corresponds to lesson 2, introducing the letter M; all the objects pictured begin with the sound M (e.g. the sewing Machine); fig. 2 shows simple words broken up into syllables; figs. 3-4 are taken from a primer in Shor, a Turki language spoken by a small group of people (about 12,000) inhabiting the mountains of the Kuznetsk Ala-Tau (Southern Siberia). Before the Revolution they were mainly trappers and had no written language, but the industrialization of the adjacent Kuznetsk basin has completely changed their mode of life. This is one of the earlier primers (1931); the method used is that of whole words.

READING MATERIAL

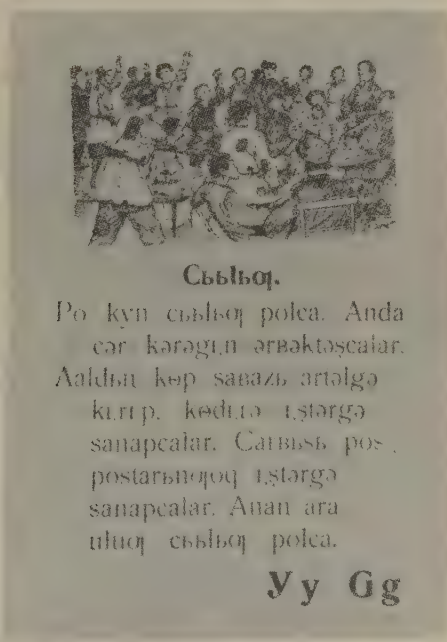
The provision of suitable reading matter is of the utmost importance. Special readers and newspapers for semi-literates have to use large print, a simple vocabulary and short sentences. It is particularly difficult to provide suitable literature in the case of the smaller nationalities who cannot afford their own printing presses. Moreover, small editions are financially onerous. Books in the languages of the smaller minorities are printed in Moscow, and naturally the range is rather limited. For a long time the proportion of educational literature was very high. For example in 1936, of the total book production in the non-Russian vernaculars, amounting to 762.6 million pages of print, more than half (419.1 million pages) were textbooks and juvenile literature and 67 millions of pages of literature for semi-literates.

Simple texts have to deal with the life of readers whose fishing or trapping occupations and consequently interests may be highly specialized and therefore very limited. Hence, alongside political literature and popular science, the need to retain folklore. To use an educational cliché, folklore can become a stepping stone 'from the known to the unknown'.

The study of folklore has been given much prominence in the U.S.S.R. and is no longer the concern of specialists only. The numerous expeditions which scoured the U.S.S.R. in the thirties in search of raw materials and untapped natural resources usually included a language specialist equipped with some recording apparatus to



Figs. 1-2. Russian. V. D. Voskresensky and R. S. Pavlovskaya, Primer for the teaching of adults, Moscow, 1950.



Figs. 3-4. Shor. Tlegerekov, 'The road to light', Primer for adults, Moscow, 1931.

Savannas

Timur serimani ber atliq ham 2 3 4
atliq puldalar. Ber atliq sanati murzi-
ni ber ala, tirinok 3 virekshan atliq
atliq. Ber atliq sanamari tiramari
tir aialar. Murzi tirinok 1 5 virek
qamasi, qula. Ber forone sanamari da-
rarin aldaruati sanan da qula. Bu sa-
man 8 virek tirinogudo, sera ala. Bu
sanam nlan kiptan sormagan qiri
sera qamali.

İyş tərminə savannardan ibarət olan
zəman 3 vətəkən artıq adlara almış.



THE N-THEM OPTC.10

Пудингийнхон арагш бэхлэн сү-
лгэн сонгомор Бөхлөн урлам нө-
сгөтүүл. Ашигтайн тасал суго

Душамануи. Шурте пор нек ман-
вире ҷаҳанмазан.

THE NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY
ASTOR LENOX TILDEN FOUNDATION
500 5TH AVENUE
NEW YORK 17, N.Y.

Бүтөөч хайвч сэмарт сэлэгдэ нур
 . Нундэ нурдэ нирэ нурдэ нэ нэмдэ
 нундэ.

Համար 0.2.1.1. օմբր-ը $1/2 \times 1/2$ է և օմբր-ը Բև. Թև. Նյ. և Երբեմուր

Fig. 6. Chuvash. S. Koltsova, 'The new village', Moscow, 1931.

tepa-tə aldiqda Xəzər torf patı torqan urmamı
pəqarəda nək kəp zəstlər diktir stansaları
təpə. Bu eşlər nədə nələtən torf zəpəsmən tək
kərtəz mənkerək uraq adın. Şübhəli torf qatı
eşən kətəvi, başqa jaqı qatların şübhəli ur
yardım itəkək Səmədlikdən tən, tən qatı
tən, şübhəli torfı urantı, sabı tən kətək
nələtən urmamı başkə nəd ə qatı qatı

Jaqu əjere — bzen p'oməj'sin-
noşəvzən ikməge. Kyberək kymer,
niif hām tor!

Tørksisø

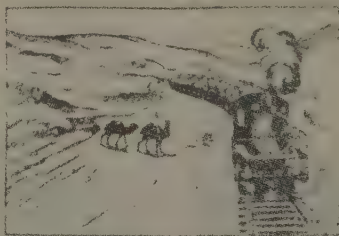
Suor ikemakko kiti, urmannatqit ugi Perik-
tan le mienne qittama kymelip utara. Sorvita
Sivonnan nimen mukka sate mukin nu ke-
tykse per nismen men kihentidän artig jaa-
kita terola.

Sizning ilimgiz qazaq savrasi da tashkil-
langan sizni qaytib Turkstanqa yubulib borib
alimni de

Türkistan Sərdar kimi saxra-ələm ərliqan. Biki
jəraklə kəşlə gna-nu saxraqa-jul kərsəyceser
krep kito alalar.

Xəzər bu saxta tilde, Törksən—Sən timer
jülə anı uşatdı. Xəzər Simipalattan Lugovoi

sharshana qadar 1442 kilonutunq tawar
yandir



Türksin ünvanı jüdə bəzi rəhbərliklər tərəfindən qaytarılmaq istəyir. Lakin ünvan jüdə bir neçə il əvvəl qaytarılmışdır.

Çonki uı julda tovar jerty bar, der 5 million sum fajda ııracok. Monıa estenı 100 Aıa tovar jerty julınu qısqartırmı 100 20 million fajda itecaklar. Derok 3000 ııııı ııez ııeten rassotlarnı qatnap ıııııı ıııııı

Fig. 7. Tartar. 'We learn, we build', Moscow, 1930.

take down songs, stories, sayings, etc. Much of this literature has been translated and is available in Russian.

The material collected has been sifted, for not all folklore is ideologically acceptable to the Marxist; stories, including fairy tales, about animals, corrupt judges of bygone days, harsh rich and cunning poor have been incorporated into books for semi-literates. The reader is more at home among these familiar characters than when he is reading, for example, about town folk.

Folklore can be modernized; since it deals with the daily life of the people, marriage, death, work, etc. it is capable of changing with changing conditions. As Gorki put it, 'an ancient melody, even slightly altered, but filled with new words, creates a new song, which will be quickly and easily assimilated'. New words are adapted to old tunes, while old poetic epithets and hyperboles are applied to new heroes—Lenin and Stalin—more remote and powerful than the heroes of old epics. Typical of this kind of literature is the work of the Kazakh poet, Dzhambul Dzhabaev, who rallied to the new régime, learnt to read in his old age and celebrated the achievements of the new way of life while using the old rhythms and word patterns and the traditional improvisation technique. Although less famous, the work of some students of the Institute of Northern Peoples has followed the same method of adapting the old songs of the tundra peoples to new conceptions, such as man conquering nature with the help of science, or the emancipation of women, now equal partners with their menfolk.

A special feature of Soviet journalism is the prominence given to free-lance contributors, i.e. to contributions from *selkors* (i.e. village correspondents). To become a contributor to the paper of the nearest town is an incentive to write, and for the friends of the correspondent an encouragement to read a newspaper, particularly in the remoter villages where the arrival of a batch of newspapers is not a daily occurrence.

To sum up: literacy has been achieved by 'cultural campaigns' surrounded by much publicity, propaganda and often rather wasteful endeavours to achieve quick results; quantity was put before quality; the 'cultural army' comprised many teachers who were neither skilled nor experienced but who, having just mastered the difficult art themselves, were in a sense eminently suited to pass on to others their newly acquired skill; alphabets were devised to allow for more-or-less phonetic transcription; some interesting experiments were made to provide suitable reading material by the use of folklore along with political literature and practical information; financial disadvantages did not prevent the Moscow presses from printing editions of 300 copies and less; special newspapers were published for semi-literates and their contributions to the local press are readily accepted.

USING LINGUISTIC ANALYSES IN LITERACY METHODS IN MEXICO

ETHEL E. WALLIS

THE FACTORS INVOLVED

Efforts to conquer illiteracy must take into account the sociological and ethnological factors involved, as well as the purely educational and linguistic aspects of preparing specific teaching materials for minority groups. The present discussion presupposes that these fundamental cultural realities have been considered, and a specific system of

education formulated in harmony with the social context of the society to be made literate. Thus, attention will be focused on the specific linguistic construction of four vernacular primers to be discussed.

In an earlier treatment of primer construction¹ I gave special attention to structural units of language such as phonemes, syllables, syntactic types, etc., as a basis for the introduction and progression of reading lessons. I stated that 'the phonetic-phonemic units of the language are the most practical structural features to be used as teaching units because they reflect sound patterns. In most cases these will be (a) the phoneme and (b) the syllable. A correct analysis and utilization of other structural features, such as words and sentences, will necessarily be incorporated in the primer, but the practical pedagogical interpretation will be in terms of the phonetic-phonemic units. For example, a morpheme is not usually practical as a teaching unit, except in a language structure where morpheme division coincides with a syllable division.'² . . . For the majority of languages, some type of teaching method which capitalizes the convenient phonetic-phonemic unit of the syllable will probably be the most direct and thorough means of making "independent" readers'.³ This emphasis upon the pattern of language sounds and structure to be employed in a method for learning to *read* a language is a close parallel to a well-known system for learning to *speak* a language developed by Charles Fries, who says: 'In learning a new language, the chief problem is not at first that of learning vocabulary items. It is, first, the mastery of the sound system—to understand the stream of speech, to hear the distinctive sound features and to approximate their production. It is, second, the mastery of the features of arrangement that constitute the structure of the language. . . . There must be sufficient vocabulary to operate the structures and represent the sound system in actual use.'⁴ Substituting written symbols for the spoken language, these principles apply in a reading method.

No less an authority than Leonard Bloomfield, whose acumen in matters of applied linguistics is still being continually attested by field experience, insisted that in the early stages of reading the sound-symbol association should be learned thoroughly. He contended that lack of mechanical mastery in the incipient learning period results later in faulty comprehension. 'The child who fails to grasp the content of what he reads is usually a poor reader also in the mechanical sense. He fails to grasp the content because he is too busy with the letters. The cure for this is not to be sought in ideational methods, but in better training at the stage where the letters are being associated with sounds. . . . This does not mean that we must forego the use of sentences and connected stories but it does mean that these are not essential to the first steps. We need not fear to use disconnected words and even senseless syllables. If we insist on the message of the letters instead of the correct response to the letters, we delay the fundamental response and retard the reader.'⁵

In two official literacy campaigns in Mexico, attended with considerable success, the two focal centres of attention in the methods have been mastery of the sound-symbol system to which Bloomfield referred, and to the 'mastery of the features of arrangement' which is the heart of Fries' teaching method. Replacing and substituting isolable items

¹ Ethel E. Wallis and Janet B. Gates, *Outline for Primer Construction*, Glendale, California, 1948.

² A pertinent example is cited from the Tzeltal language of Chiapas, Mexico, by Marion Cowan. The word *tal* (came) used in the Tzeltal primer is simultaneously a syllable, a word, and a morpheme. Immediately after this form the related word *talon* (I came) was introduced. Difficulty was encountered in teaching this relationship because the native speakers were not conditioned to respond to the linguistically obvious morpheme division *tal-on*, but to the syllable division *ta-lon*.

³ Ibid. p. 4.

⁴ Charles C. Fries, *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*, Ann Arbor, 1945, p. 3.

⁵ Quoted by Clarence L. Barnhart in his introduction to Bloomfield's unpublished manuscript, 'Teaching Children to Read'.

within frames,¹ beginning on a syllable level, is the foundation of the reading methods in the Tarascan² and Tzeltal³ literacy campaigns.

THE TARASCAN PRIMER

In the Tarascan primer five of the six vowels are taught on the first page. These five vowels correspond to the Spanish vowel system. In the next stage of teaching these five vowels are combined one by one with the phoneme *j*, and then *n*, consonants which have a high frequency of occurrence in the language. The resultant syllables *ja*, *je*, *ji*, *jo*, *ju*, and *na*, *ne*, *ni*, *no*, *nu* are immediately used (fig. 9) in short words formed from them. By using these syllables, plus a syllable composed of two vowels, *ia*, and a syllable of one vowel, *i*, the following frame of sentences appears on page 7 (fig. 10) of the primer:

juni iju	Come here, little boy.
ia nana	Right now (I will) lady.
juni ija	Come here, little girl.
ia nana	Right now (I will) lady.
juni ana	Come here, Anna.
ia nana	Right now (I will) lady.

Thus the syllables learned are immediately used in words, inasmuch as the Tarascan features of word arrangement utilize these elementary syllables in short words. The primer lessons are built upon a progression of this order: (a) syllable frames, that is, consonant vowel pattern drill, when a new consonant phoneme is introduced; (b) word drill utilizing the new syllables in combination with previously learned ones; (c) sentences, in which words, or syllables as parts of words, are replaced. Although interest is created through pictures typical of the Tarascan region, and the sentences are meaningful to a native of that area, first consideration is given to a mechanical drill of the component units which are used as basic building blocks, namely, vowel phonemes and syllables composed of those vowels in combination with common consonant phonemes. The words used in the primer are merely an extension, or repetition, of the basic syllable pattern. This progression is repeated until all the possible combinations of consonants and vowels are taught, and drilled in syllables, words and sentences, and until words of six or eight syllables are read easily.

The progression of the Tarascan primer is reported by those who use it for teaching as good, and 'very teachable'. Several thousand pupils in the Tarascan literacy campaign have mastered the mechanics of reading in four months, and are reading new material, such as a vernacular newspaper, with ease and comprehension.

THE TZETAL PRIMER

In general the same type of progression is used in the Tzeltal primer. After teaching the five vowels, the phonemes, *j*, *n*, *l*, and *n* are introduced one at a time and drilled in consonant-vowel syllables with all of the vowels. Words of a consonant-vowel-consonant-vowel syllable pattern are introduced with each set of syllables, to utilize these mechanical units in meaningful utterances. By using these words, simple sentences such as the following are possible on page 12 (fig. 11) of the primer:

¹ '“Frame drills” consist of a “frame” with a substitution list. A phrase-frame may be a sentence, word, or even a syllable of which one part may be changed. The replaceable parts are the substitution list.' Sarah Gudschinsky, *Handbook of Literacy*, Glendale, California, 1951, p. 19.

² The Tarascan literacy campaign, in the state of Michoacan, is under the direction of the Instituto de Alfabetización para Indígenas Monolingües. The Tarascan primers were prepared with the help of members of the Summer Institute of Linguistics.

³ The Tzeltal campaign in the state of Chiapas is under the direction of the Instituto Nacional Indigenista. Primers were prepared with the help of the Summer Institute of Linguistics.

a	e	i	o	u
ja	je	ji	jo	ju
na	ne	ni	no	nu

no	ni	ne	na
ni	nu	no	nu
ne	ni	na	ni
jo	ji	no	ja
ju	ja	je	ni
ji	no	ne	na

Fig. 9. Introductory syllable and vowel drill from the Tarascan primer.



juni iju.
ia nana.
juni ija.
ia nana.
juni ana.
ia nana.

Fig. 10. Alternating sentence frame drill in the Tarascan primer.



Fig. 11. A sentence frame from the Tzeltal primer.

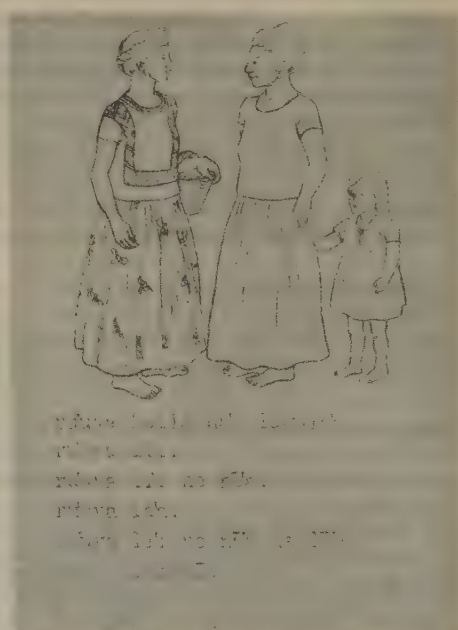


Fig. 12. A page from the Zapoteco primer showing use of a sentence frame.

tila mula	Tie the mule.
nita mula	Pull the mule.
maja mula	Beat the mule.

Words of the consonant-vowel and consonant-vowel-consonant-vowel syllable patterns are drilled until page 24 of the primer where the new syllable pattern, consonant-vowel-consonant, is introduced. Syllables and words using those syllable patterns are drilled, first in frames, and then in heterogeneous contexts until the pupil responds automatically to the written symbols in any permissible order.

Teachers of this method report that the primer has given excellent results. They would, however, suggest more drill in certain transition stages in the primer. Flash-cards are used at present to provide the additional drill needed.

THE MAZATECO PRIMER

In the Mazateco¹ reading method, syllables are taught as parts of words rather than in isolation as in the case of the Tarascan and Tzeltal. In the first section of the primer a picture is presented on a page with the word for the object. For example, the picture of a bird appears with the word for bird, *niseè*, written underneath it. Two short sentences about the bird are then given.

tisèe niseè	The bird sings.
sinè kji niseè	The bird is yellow.

Then on the opposite page the component syllables of the words are drilled: ni, ti, si, etc. Words composed of these syllables are then drilled in sentence frames as follows on page 20 of the primer:

nàna títè	My mother dances.
nàna tísitè	My mother spins it.
nàna tísèe	My mother sings.
títè tii	The boy dances.
títè sàsée	The clown dances.
títè nàna	My mother dances.

It is noteworthy that even where the word method is followed, attention is also given to parts of whole words for purposes of drill and recognition. The parts to be used are determined by the frequency and formation of the syllables, in terms of phonemes. Here again the use of 'features of arrangement that constitute the structure of the language' is a pedagogically essential factor in the reading method. Word methods have been successfully applied in various situations in Mexico when the use of them has been guided by the following considerations: 'Word families, or words which have several factors in common, should be taught in an order to be determined by the frequency and productivity of their component parts.... The word structure should be analyzed and words classified as to their relative simplicity as a basis for use in the primer. They should be introduced in the primer according to *types* or *patterns*, in terms of the units previously considered, that is, phonemes and syllables.'²

THE ZAPOTECO PRIMER

In the Zapoteco³ primer the introductory unit of teaching is the sentence, which is subsequently divided into words, and ultimately into syllables. The sentence method was used because of the complexity of vowel nuclei which complicate syllable division,

¹ A tonal language of the state of Oaxaca for which members of the Summer Institute of Linguistics have prepared primers.

² Wallis and Gates, op. cit., p. 5.

³ Zapoteco of the Isthmus is a tonal language in the state of Oaxaca. Primers have been prepared by members of the Summer Institute of Linguistics.

as well as other problems of word structure. However, even in the teaching of sentences the principle of using basic patterns of the language is not ignored. The sentence frames chosen utilize a limited number of frequent phonemes occurring in regular word patterns. Thus we have the following frame on page 4 (fig. 12) of the primer:

ru'uya Delia na'a luguia'a	Delia sees me at the market.
ru'uya li'i	She sees you.
ru'uya li'i ne nã'a	She sees you and me.
ru'uya la'a	She sees her.
ru'uya li'i ne nã'a ne lã'a	She sees you and me and her.
ru'uya la'anuu	She sees us.

The sentence type used, transitive verb plus object, permits a substitution of the object which provides interesting drill. Thus the Zapoteco sentence method also follows the basic pattern of replaceable or substitutable items in the early stages of reading.

Thus, in the four languages of Mexico from which these primer illustrations are taken, Tarascan, Tzeltal, Mazateco, and Zapoteco—which are genetically and structurally diverse—the principle of the mastery of sound and structural patterns has, at each level of teaching, proved valuable. When response to these written patterns has become automatic, and sufficient variations of practice material provided, the result has been fluent and comprehending readers.

THE CONSTRUCTION AND USE OF READERS FOR AYMARA INDIANS

ELAINE MIELKE TOWNSEND

THE simplicity of the first page of the Aymara primer (see fig. 13) will be obvious. There are only two different words on the entire page and only four different phonemes: a, n, u, and t. Of course the student does not know that he is working with just a small part of the alphabet that has been carefully worked out phonemically. Note that the word *anu* (meaning dog) is repeated five times as is also the word *uta* (meaning house). Thus, when we introduce the word *anu* under the picture and present to the student the entire word (not merely the letters or sounds) he finds, by comparison, the other words on the page which say *anu*. At first when we ask him to find where it says *anu* at other places on the page, he might possibly point to *uta*, but we remind him that he doesn't confuse his friends that way. We point out the difference in appearance between these two friends, *anu* and *uta*. He will be able to distinguish between them more easily if we have used words that are as dissimilar as possible within the limited scope of our initial phonemes. The whole course, in fact, is a process of recognizing dissimilarities, first between words and then between parts of words. If the words have been properly chosen and the syllable structure of the language is not too difficult, the transition from the ability to recognize known words to the ability to recognize phonemes and group them into syllables so as to be able to figure out new words, will be made almost unconsciously.

Before making the primers we compiled a list of 200 common nouns and as many verbs as could be pictured. Then, to find the phonemes that were most common in these words we charted the number of times each consonant and vowel appeared, arranging them in order of frequency. Thus a, n, u and t were chosen first. We avoided minimal differences of phonemes in word pairs such as *uta* and *ata*, and pairs with

phonemes reversed such as *anu* and *una*, because such combinations prove confusing to the beginner. Later on, however, they are used as a teaching device.

The bugaboo of an illiterate's inferiority complex is largely dispelled the moment he can recognize *anu* and *uta* wherever he finds them. It dawns on him that he is reading—and after only five minutes' study. The attitude of confidence and enjoyment is instilled from the start. True, it's only two words, but the impossible is being accomplished. For instance, the teacher pretends that the first page is a nearby city and asks one of the pupils to find their friend *anu* as many times as possible on the streets of Lima, for example. Then she turns the page and says that they have gone to another well-known city, 'Now let's see if we can find our friend *anu* in Cuzco'. This time it isn't so easy as the pupil has nothing known to compare the word with. He must remember what *anu* looked like. If he can't, the teacher turns back to the first page and drills the pupil on comparison until he can remember.

The primers are so constructed that each new word is repeated several times on the first page on which it appears and then at least once or twice on the following two pages, as well as on a later review page (see picture of second page, fig. 14). By that time the word is quite well established. But should the pupil go wrong at any stage along the way, he is not given help from that page of the primer but is taken back to the page where the word appears below the picture. It is well to caution the teacher to be sure the student knows just what the picture represents. For instance, if the word below the picture represents nest, but the picture is that of a nest with eggs in it, the pupil must know that the word means nest and not eggs.

Page three of the primer (fig. 15) shows the introduction of a new phoneme. Here *p* has been introduced and thus we are able to form *tapa* (nest). The phoneme *p* is the next most common phoneme in Aymara after *a*, *n*, *u*, and *t*. After having two lessons with this additional phoneme we are ready to introduce the next most common phoneme, *s*. Thus, every second lesson introduces a new phoneme; approximately every tenth lesson should be review work.

There are only 26 lessons and one-third of the alphabet in this first primer. We find it much better to make four or five small primers instead of one big one. The psychological effect of having finished one book and going on to another is good. First lessons have large, bold letters; in later lessons they gradually decrease in size. Only lower case type is used; we do not wish to confuse the reader at this point with two symbols for one phoneme. As soon as possible we try to form phrases at the bottom of the page so that the student is reading for contextual meaning. Note lesson 10 (fig. 16) of the second Aymara primer, which shows two more sizes of type and also phrases at the bottom of the page. All the phonemes of the language should be introduced by the end of the third primer so that the fourth and fifth can include stories, songs, etc.

In each of the primers, lessons in the official language of the country (Spanish) are included, as naturally the Government is eager to have the people learn to read and speak it. By teaching in the vernacular first and then introducing words of the official language which include only the phonemes already introduced, it is possible to teach reading in the latter more quickly. Lessons in the official language on the history of the country, health, agriculture, civics, etc., can be incorporated in the last primer, making the lessons bilingual.

After all the letters of the vernacular language have been used, there will probably still be several in the official language that have not been introduced. Special lessons are devoted to them. It is very possible that some of these extra letters will not be phonemic and they should be left till the last, especially if they are at variance with some of the phonemes taught in the vernacular. The end of the third or fourth primer is the place to list all the letters and their names, giving both lower case and capital letters.

In preparing a bilingual primer, one is tempted to begin with borrowed words from



anu

uta	anu
anu	uta
uta	anu

anu uta
uta anu

1

Fig. 13.



u t a

uta	anu
utata	uta
anu	utata

anu uta
utata anu

2

Fig. 14.



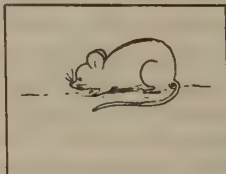
tapa

tapa	uta
utata	tapa
anu	uta

utata anu
tapa uta

3

Fig. 15.



achaku

chika	achaku
churamama	chika
chani	chaka
chita	chani
achaku	churamama
chusi	jinchu
ikiña	churamama
achakuj	umankiwa

10

Fig. 16.

the official language and work them over according to the phonetics and grammar of the vernacular. Instead of being a stepping stone from the vernacular to the official language, however, it has been found that this use of borrowed words is actually confusing. On this subject, Dr. Charles C. Fries writes: 'Translation and "word equivalents" which seem to save time at the beginning cause delay in the long run and may, if continued, even set up such habits and confusions as to thwart any real control of the new language.'¹

We have been teaching by a process of comparison—planned comparison in which the elements to be considered have been kept at a minimum until the pupil was ready for more. Throughout the process the pupil has been reading for meaning. There have been no nonsense syllables. They have all faced him first in the meaningful context of a word. Unconsciously their structure and use have dawned upon him so that he can piece them together in new words and sentences. Advantage has been taken of the fact that the language has a phonemic alphabet, thus permitting a simplification of the pedagogical problem which could never have been done in a grossly non-phonemic orthography such as English. Best of all, perhaps, is the fact that the new literate can himself teach someone else by simply following the above principles of comparison. He doesn't have to talk much, but simply pronounce the new words the first time they appear and stop the pupil when he makes a mistake. Even then he doesn't tell him what the word says, but rather takes him back to the first time the word appears. No pedagogical training is required to use this system, which we have called the 'Psychophonemic Method'. The linguist who prepared the primer has done the work ahead of time.

Games have been used to good advantage not only to create the feeling that reading can be fun, but also to provide the necessary drill without drudgery. Here are a few games that we have found especially helpful.

WORD LOTTO

This game provides excellent drill and can be played by as few as two and as many as eight people. A list of the 25 words you want to drill is first made. They may be the first 25 words of the primer or they may be tone pairs if the language is tonal, or if the class is far enough advanced perhaps drill on minimal word pairs is needed.

The materials required for this game are nine pieces of cardboard 6×8 inches. These are divided up into 25 squares as the illustration shows. Then one of these cards is cut up for the caller to use. Small pieces of coloured paper or kernels of corn are also needed to complete the equipment.

The 25 individual word squares are placed in front of the player who is to be the caller—preferably one of the better students. The squares should be placed word down, in a pile before the caller. Each of the players is given one of the 6×8 cards with the 25 words on them. In arranging the words on these cards one should be sure that no two cards are alike as the object is to see who can cover up one row of the words first. If there are two rows of words alike, two people might win at the same time.

The caller begins by picking up one of the words and reading it. Each player looks for this word on his card until he finds it and then he covers it with a kernel of corn or a piece of paper. If the players are beginners it might be necessary not only to have the caller read the word but also to show the card to the players so that they can find it by matching. The first person to cover five words in a row calls out 'winner' and is the next caller.

¹ Charles C. Fries, *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*, University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor, 1945, p. 6.

WORD PARCHESI

Two to six players can play this game which will provide drill in from 25 to 35 words. Using a stiff piece of cardboard about 18 × 18 inches, draw a *parchesi* or game on India board similar to the illustration. Using the words from the primer, print one word in each space, leaving several spaces throughout the board to be coloured red or green. If the player lands on a red square he loses a turn, if he lands on a green one he gets another. This provides the element of chance so that even the slow student can win and is thus encouraged to continue. After all, it is for the slower ones that the drill is needed.

Each player should have a different coloured counter (a button will serve). The number of spaces he can move his counter forward is determined by using a spinner (dice) which bears numbers from one to six. Suppose the spinner stops at number three, the player moves his counter forward three spaces and reads the word on that square. If he reads it wrongly (the other players acting as teacher), or cannot read it, he must return his counter to where it was and wait for his next turn. The player reaching the goal first is the winner. However the spinner must stop on the exact number needed to reach 'home' or he cannot move. This means that the one who apparently will be last to reach home has still a chance to win.

With these two games to augment a well developed 'psycho-phonemic primer', learning to read can be fun.

anu	uta	tapa	pusi	laka
putu	sanu	nasa	jani	laru
punku	tuku	anuta	tama	muju
pisqo	jatun	singa	urqo	alqo
qowi	lampa	ñan	rin	juj

Word Lotto.



Word Parchesi.

SOCIAL PROGRESS IN EASTERN CANADA: THE ANTIGONISH MOVEMENT

ELLEN ARSENAULT

THEY want to take their knowledge with their soup and get it in the kitchen, Dr. J. J. Tompkins, the pioneer adult educator in Eastern Canada, was wont to say when the question of education for adults came up. What follows is a brief account of the programme commonly known as The Antigonish Movement—a programme which keeps in mind that adult people 'want to take their knowledge with their soup and get it in the kitchen'.

THE SETTING

It will be necessary first to say something about the Maritime Provinces of Canada. Nova Scotia and its two sister provinces-by-the-sea, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island, have a combined area of 53,000 square miles, approximately the size of England. The million and a quarter people of these Maritime Provinces, mainly farmers, fishermen, lumbermen, coal miners and steel workers, are of Scotch, Irish, French and English origin and of many faiths and beliefs. The economy is a complex one.

A century ago saw an age of plenty in this part of the world. Communities were self-sustaining. Trade flourished, fish, farm products and timber were exported to Britain and the West Indies.

But the scene changed. During the last half of the nineteenth century and the early decades of the twentieth trade declined and many young men left farms and fishing villages to seek a more remunerative life in the city. The poverty and decline of rural life was pitiful. A Royal Commission on Fisheries in 1928 describes maritime conditions in the fishing industry thus:

'Neglected boats with hulls ripe and rotten on the beach; discarded gear once valuable and useful, but now falling to decay; abandoned fishing vessels left hopefully equipped as they came in from the sea to wait for a better season which never came; wharves and breakwaters once staunch and busy but now dilapidated and deserted; once prosperous localities slowly but surely becoming the graveyards of a dead industry; fisherfolk despondent and disheartened struggling on against economic disabilities, eager to labour in one of the most hazardous of pursuits, but unable to sell their products for a reasonable reward, always hoping for better luck and clinging grimly and patiently to their calling—a tribute at once to their character and their courage; school children psychologically distrustful of a future in their own country and planning to migrate at maturity to another land to make a living.'

THE EXTENSION DEPARTMENT OF ST. F.X.

It was in the golden era of prosperity of a century ago that St. Francis Xavier University, a small arts and science college in the Nova Scotian town of Antigonish (population 4,500) was established. In the dark age of depression that followed, this institution was to prove its worth to the community it served.

In annual conferences from 1918 onwards St. Francis Xavier professors and clergymen and lay leaders of the area discussed the problems of their communities in an attempt to find a solution to existing difficulties, and concluded that education, particularly adult education, could provide the answer. In 1928, the Extension Department of the University was opened and Dr. M. M. Coady was appointed to prepare and direct its programme.

The director of the new Extension Department was a man of versatile capabilities. He was both an idealist and a realist. He knew that education for his adult pupils could not be just dilettante excursions into the fields of art and literature: most people are not long interested in things that have no practical value for them. It would have to be down-to-earth and give them knowledge that would lead them to a satisfying, secure life, to the good and abundant life as he himself would say. It would have to take the people where they were and lead them on to where they ought to be. Furthermore, it would have to include all the people—Protestant, Catholic and non-Christian—who lived side by side in these parts.

Dr. Coady believed that every human being had potentialities, which in many cases had been denied development because of the lack of material wealth. He reasoned that if people were expected to expand their talents and evolve to a fuller life, they must have a right to the means whereby this could be done. He was convinced of the possibilities, yet unexplored, of group action in the economic field. Those who had the wherewithal to develop their talents were in business: the people must also go into business. They would do this by group action. The tendency of individuals in business was toward rugged individualism, whereas the group would be inclined to work for the good of one another and of the community, thus leading to a better distribution of wealth.

PRINCIPLES

The Antigonish Movement is built on this philosophical basis. It is the mobilization of adult people for learning which issues in social action, but especially in economic group action or co-operation. If we would understand this programme of adult education, we must remember the fundamental principle. The movement is not a course or a curriculum aiming to make people more learned in the ordinary sense of that term; it is an organization of people in their own communities acquiring the best techniques and the knowledge necessary for the solution of their every-day problems.

Another principle of the movement is that, in the beginning, it is impossible to carry out such a programme on a national level in a country as large as Canada. The practical educator will organize people in an area that is big enough to be significant and small enough to be manageable. The Maritime Provinces constitute such an area, and it is in this area that the Antigonish programme functions. Its variety of resources and its complicated economy make it a worthwhile social laboratory. The experiment that is going on here, where there were not only very poor people and very illiterate people, but also those who were comfortable and others who were well-off, may well constitute a pattern applicable to the rest of Canada and to the world.

TECHNIQUES

Many groups, especially among the fisherfolk, were absolutely illiterate; these were taught to read and write, sometimes by Extension Department leaders, often by others in the community who volunteered to help. Thousands more were virtually illiterate: they had the ability to read and write but in their adult life had no contact with printed material, and consequently made no use of their skill. In each community there were those who had at least some formal schooling and native ability as leaders. These were approached by a member of the Extension staff, who put squarely before them such questions as: Are you interested in your own betterment and in the progress of your community? Are you content to remain poor or do you want to do something about the desolation and poverty round about you? It was a *dare*. The leader in the community took up the challenge, called a general meeting of the people of the area

and had Dr. Coady or one of his assistants speak to these farmers and fishermen. The speech was fiery and dynamic and held out the hope that something could be done about existing conditions. The thing was to get together and find out how. The mass meeting with its inspirational speaker was the original technique used in all communities for the diffusion of knowledge.

At the mass meeting, study clubs of about ten to each group were organized to meet weekly for the purpose of discussing community problems.

It soon became obvious that trained leaders were needed, not only for directing the educational work which had spread over a wide area within a couple of years, but also for managing the economic institutions which were evolving. In 1933, a short course for the training of leaders was opened on the University campus. The 86 students were first introduced to the theory and the possibilities of group action in the economic field. Then the school was turned into a miniature community, study groups were formed, the student members were given as their assignment the problems of their various communities and were asked to work out a solution. The ideas that emerged in the discussion supplied the economic formulae and the social philosophy to meet the needs in view. After a month of direction and study of economic co-operation through the discussion circle technique, the students went forth with zeal for the work ahead of them.

Conferences, local, regional and general were held, to which representatives from every community went for inspiration. Literature in pamphlet form was put out by the University. A small open-shelf for books put up in the Extension Department has since grown to a fair-sized library where books on co-operation, agriculture, travel, handicrafts and many other topics are loaned free of charge to adult people of the Maritimes. In the early days of the Movement, *The Extension Bulletin* (now *The Maritime Co-operator*, a semi-monthly publication) was launched to fulfil the need for a regular organ to carry study material to the people. It treated of current events in a general manner, giving the study club members many topics for discussion, and carried reviews of worthwhile books and pamphlets which stimulated the people to do outside reading.

NEW TECHNIQUES

Radio. The newest development is the use of radio. A local radio station owned by alumni and friends of the University gives ample free time for adult education work. Each fall and winter season there are two series of programmes broadcast weekly, one directed chiefly to miners and other industrial workers, the other to farmers, fishermen and lumbermen. Three or four experts, of whom at least one is representative of the local vocational interests, discuss topics over the air, bringing many points to the attention of the listening audience for further study. Topics include health through food, co-operation, housing, insurance, land utilization, farm management, wages, strikes. A bulletin on the subject of discussion is put out by the Extension Department prior to the broadcast and mailed not only to organized listening groups but also to interested individuals who request them. Over 50,000 of these bulletins went out from the Extension office during the past season.

A companion radio series, 'University of the Air', features book reviews by the Extension librarian, music appreciation programmes and talks on popular and cultural subjects by the University faculty.

Lecture classes. For the past five years weekly lectures, which are integrated with the radio broadcasts, have been given to the industrial workers of Nova Scotia. The miners often come to these classes direct from their work in the pit to take part in the discussion and to ask questions of the lecturer. Approximately eight hundred workers in 12 communities were registered in the classes during the past fall and winter season, and the number is increasing each year. The former director of this part of the work, Dr. M. J.

MacKinnon, was named head of the Extension Department early this year when Dr. Coady resigned because of ill-health.

Films. The use of coloured slides and films has been found extremely valuable at short courses and mass meetings. These slides and films portray achievements of progressive people in many parts of the world—a source of emulation for adult students everywhere.

CO-OPERATIVE DEVELOPMENT

Money being the great need of the people, the establishment of a credit union was usually the first action taken in the economic field. A credit union is a small co-operative bank receiving deposits from and making short-term loans to its members. The Extension Department had pamphlets written on how to establish a credit union, and these were given to the study clubs for discussion. In the beginning the credit union operated simply on the basis that those who could brought a sum of money—as small as 10 cents, or as large an amount as they could afford—to their weekly study club meetings, and gave it to the treasurer, who marked it down and gave them a receipt. Students thus saved while they studied. After about a year of study and saving, they made application to the provincial government for a charter, and the credit union was set up as a legally constituted body. In the process of organizing, local study clubs met occasionally with those of nearby communities and people began to recognize that others' problems were much like their own, and a feeling of inter-community good-will was generated.

Within a short time credit unions began to expand in assets and to increase in numbers throughout the Maritime Provinces. It soon became evident that in order to be mutually beneficial they should be federated; hence, three provincial Credit Union Leagues were established in the Maritimes to act as central agencies for receiving surplus funds from the more prosperous and making loans to the more needy credit unions. One of the developments of these central agencies was in the field of insurance, covering both savings and loans.

The Extension Department believed that if a credit union could be studied and established, other types of co-operatives would follow. Consumer co-operative stores came into being with the same humble beginnings as the credit union, starting very often as buying clubs; the place of business might be somebody's back porch which served as a store-room for supplies ordered by study club members as a group.

The farmers, fishermen and miners of this country thus had their first taste of business; they learned that there was nothing mysterious about it, and discovered that economic activities are in themselves educative. The annual meetings of the various groups were fast becoming important and instructive occasions that were opening up great vistas of possibilities for the future.

Local fisheries groups had been organized by Dr. Coady in the early days of Extension activity at the request of the Canadian Government. Using the mass meeting technique followed by the formation of study clubs, a three-fold purpose was kept in mind: educating the fishermen, allowing them a voice in formulating policies relating to their industry, and introducing them to a programme of both consumer and producer co-operation. Local groups federated into the United Maritime Fishermen, with an efficient and co-operative minded man at its head whose duty it was to seek markets for the fishermen and procure the fishing gear needed by local groups.

Group marketing by the farmers resulted in the establishment of a central marketing association at Moncton, New Brunswick, the geographical centre of the Maritimes. This developed into what is now the Maritime Co-operative Services, a wholesale agency for co-operative stores as well as a marketing agency for farmers. Four smaller affiliated wholesales serve local areas, and these, along with other co-operative institutions all fit together to form the basic pattern of the Extension programme.

ACHIEVEMENTS

The credit unions of the Maritime Provinces now number 439 with a membership of 95,000 and savings of over \$10½ million. Loans since the beginning total over \$45 million. There are 220 co-operative stores in the zone which, including the central wholesale and its four affiliates and the United Maritime Fishermen, last year did a combined business of almost \$45 million. These figures are small when compared with big business in North America but significant when one considers that the participants are all small people, economically speaking.

Housing groups, in co-operation with the Nova Scotia Housing Commission, have completed 275 new homes for themselves and have 110 others under construction. In addition to these group efforts, over a thousand homes have been built by individuals through the aid of credit union loans.

RESULTS

There were people in the Maritime Provinces to whom this programme did not appeal because, they said, it was too materialistic and in reality was not education at all. There were others to whom it was plebeian and low-brow. To those who were steeped in their lethargy it seemed ludicrous, impracticable. To the rich and powerful it was an amusing absurdity to be ignored.

The charge of 'materialism'—in one sense of that—has never been denied. On the contrary, the necessity for material well-being is a fundamental principle of the movement. The achievements of the people meant more than the materialistic gains, however. Creative thinking was required on the part of the people themselves, and creative thinking is one of the chief ends of all education. If it is plebeian and low-brow for the masses of the people to do these things, it is equally vulgar for anyone else to do them or to have them done. In view of what has been accomplished, it is clear that this programme is neither ludicrous nor impracticable. The big business man has come to realize that it is not amusing or absurd. The little people of the world are waking up. They are no longer going to be the victims of exploitation. Feudalism is dying, serfdom is on the way out and the economic royalists of the past are beginning to understand, slowly but surely, that they must change their attitude towards primary producers and labourers.

The Extension Department programme establishes, too, a material basis for learning and culture. This was shown in Eastern Canada when a few years ago the miners spearheaded a movement for regional libraries in Nova Scotia. The up-to-the-minute library financed by a portion of the earnings of the credit union and co-operative store of the little Cape Breton mining town of Reserve, bears witness to the fact that these hard-working people had in their hearts the yearning for knowledge, which for three hundred years was denied them on account of their poverty.

It has never been maintained that this programme of adult education and economic co-operation is the complete answer to the problems of the world. But wrestling with their own difficulties trains people to the point where they are able to take on whatever may lie ahead.

Too often the mistake is made that this is a programme for people who are 'down and out' and not for those who enjoy an economic standard approaching or above the decency level. The fact is that it has been designed to apply to all classes in society—to those who are 'down and out' that they may receive what is essential in education and economic well-being; to those who enjoy average incomes that they may have a more equitable share of the national income; to even the well-to-do that they may be given an opportunity of establishing a society based on social justice. To all classes this programme, which provoked real thinking rather than the acceptance of commercial catch-cries, was something new.

Many people have asked the question, 'How do you get the leaders?' The answer is that, like Topsy in *Uncle Tom's Cabin*—they 'just grewed.' The programme provides the necessary material; participation in co-operative enterprises generates a realism and a sense of responsibility, and leaders emerge naturally from the ranks of the people. Within recent years a most heartening development has been the leadership role assumed by teachers and other professional men to help the less favoured and less fortunate in society.

A TYPICAL COMMUNITY

Many communities of the Maritimes illustrate what the people have done under the inspiration of this programme. Grand Étang in Nova Scotia, Lameque in New Brunswick, Morell in Prince Edward Island come immediately to mind. The story of Morell is typical.

Morell has about 300 families, mostly in the open country but with a few settled in a fishing village near the shore. Fifteen years ago the village suffered from economic depression. Farmers and fishermen alike received less than nothing for their products: cases were reported where farmers bought fertilizer in the spring for potato crops that yielded such a low price the proceeds did not cover even the cost of the fertilizer; fishermen's gear and fishing supplies were priced higher than the returns the fishermen got from their fish. Two Morell students who had learned of the Antigonish theory of adult education while studying at St. Dunstan's University in Charlottetown, decided to obtain study material from St. F.X. and work along the same lines in their own community. The achievements of the Morell people after 15 years of study and action include the following: a new, large modern country store with an egg-grading station attached; in the same building, the credit union office; nearby, a new lobster-canning factory, a frost-proof potato warehouse which holds 50 cars of potatoes, and a modern creamery with cold storage facilities. A community hall, with motion picture equipment and bowling alleys, and an out-door skating rink provide recreation for young and old. The community has about \$60,000 savings in its credit union. Through their co-operative store they are providing other services for the community: car repairs, tractor services for farmers, painting, installation of plumbing and electrical appliances. As problems arise, the people solve them for themselves. They are truly masters of their own destiny. They understand that they are part of a movement that is spreading not only in the Maritime Provinces but in other parts of Canada and to other parts of the world. Many visitors who have come to Antigonish from the United States of America and the West Indies, from Europe, India and the Orient to study this movement have called at Morell, at Grand Étang, at Lameque, at Port Beckerton and at many other Maritime communities to see for themselves how the programme really works. They are convinced that a solution to the problems of their own countries can be found in the use of the same simple techniques.

CONCLUSION

In the evolution of this work there were sometimes difficulties, heartbreaks and failures, discouragement and disillusionment. None of these were too serious, however. People generally were anxious to improve their lot and were willing to learn. The dynamic philosophy of the programme supplies a clue to those who would be leaders of similar movements—for we believe that the Antigonish Movement has significance for the development of other parts of the earth: Believe in people, inspire them with hope, give them a proper philosophy of life, then leave them the responsibility of doing the job for themselves.

COMBATING ILLITERACY IN A FRENCH WEST AFRICA PROJECT

ANDRÉ TERRISSE

Editor's Note: The M'Boumba fundamental educational project was made possible by the co-operation of the French High Commissioner's Office and the Grand Conseil for French West Africa, with the assistance of the authorities of the social and administrative services. The project was organized by Mr. Camerlynck, Director of Education, and directed by Mr. Terrisse, Head of the Bureau pédagogique of the Director's Office. It appears to be the prelude to a systematic campaign planned to cover all the French West African Territories, in accordance with the circulars issued and the recommendations expressed by Dr. Aujoulat, Secretary of State for French Overseas Territories.

This article does not cover all the lessons to be learnt from this project, but one aspect of the subject only: the literacy campaign amongst adolescents and adults. The official report¹ on the work of the Mission contains much other information on hygiene, agriculture, manual labour, local arts, etc.

AT a meeting of the Federal Commission for Fundamental Education in French West Africa, held on 18 May 1951 under the chairmanship of the Governor, Mr. Hoeffel, it was decided, at the suggestion of the Director of Education, Mr. Camerlynck, to organize an adult education experiment in a village in French West Africa.

The place selected was the village of M'Boumba, on the left bank of the small arm of the river Senegal, in the Podor bend.

This village of 1,800 inhabitants has neither school nor dispensary. During the whole of the rainy season it is cut off from all centres of habitation, and lies at some distance from any main route. Formerly the capital of Fouta, M'Boumba was for long the residence of the Almamys of the Wane family, traditional friends and allies of France. It was Almamy Ibra Wane who negotiated with France at Galoya in 1877; and Almamy Mamadou Wane, a contemporary of Faïdherbe, who gave authorization for the building of the Podor Fort. Faïdherbe lived at M'Boumba on the very site of the building now occupied by the mission, where the four tombs of the ancient sovereigns of Fouta can still be seen.

The population of the village is composed entirely of Toucouleurs. The nobles and courtiers (*torodos* and *diawandos*) are descendants of the old royal court; the manual workers form an inferior caste; and the former slaves are now employed as servants. On the opposite bank of the river there is a fishing village, Soubalo—M'Boumba, forming a separate district; the fisher folk also belong to a lower caste.

Near M'Boumba are several large cattle-breeding stations, Peulhs, Diongui and Tjikitté, with a population of 1,600; the hamlet of Méri, a few kilometres away, has a population of 1,000 Toucouleurs.

The Toucouleurs farm the land, their main crops being millet and maize, with a certain amount of cotton, which they spin and weave; there are food crops scattered

¹ Address enquiries to: Mr. A. Terrisse, Chef du Bureau pédagogique, Rectorat, Dakar, Afrique Occidentale Française.

here and there. Winter crops are grown on dry land of the Diéri, and then, after the floods have retreated, the flooded land, which yields first-class crops, is farmed.

The population, which is very strongly Moslem, remains deeply attached to its ancestral traditions.

Conditions lent themselves to an experimental project. The mission on arrival found a totally illiterate people, living so far from the nearest dispensary that, despite the efforts of the health service, medical care was virtually non-existent. Owing to the isolated position of the village, moreover, the people had very little contact with Europeans. Our vehicles, when they arrived at the end of January, were amongst the first to reach the village, after it had been completely cut off for several months.

The purpose of the Mission was to experiment on the spot with methods and techniques of adult education for use in French West Africa and to prepare suitable material. In other words the mission, while adhering to certain general theories based both on the experience of past Unesco projects and on the general principles of the French educational system, started without any preconceived ideas or any cut-and-dried educational programme. *Its first care was to investigate on the spot the needs and desires of the population and the possibilities for educational work.* We shall deal here only with one part of the Mission's work, the literacy campaign.

In general terms the project showed that an *adult* literacy campaign in Africa raises a number of complex problems:

1. It is difficult to form regular classes during the day, especially in farming areas, where the able-bodied section of the population works in the fields.
2. This section of the population is constantly shifting, since people journey incessantly, on all kinds of pretexts, going off for a few days, and then reappearing, especially at times when work on the land is slack—that is, at just those periods most suitable for teaching purposes. Anything serves as a pretext for a trip—fairs, temporary migrations, visits to members of the family living a long way away. School classes, in addition to being fluctuating, are frequently very mixed, elements consisting in the main of children and old people.
3. It is difficult to read and write, by the ordinary methods, in the open air. A minimum of comfort and fixed equipment is essential.
4. There are serious psychological difficulties: adult classes are very touchy. Often students who had been laughed at by their fellows for making a mistake in reading, ceased coming to the class.

During the first few days, investigations naturally centred round the possibility of day classes. Several incidents indicated that the desire to learn to read and write is not very strong, or at least that the position is not as simple as might have been supposed. The nobility hang back out of pride, being reluctant to compete with the lower castes; while the latter suffer from an inferiority complex, afraid to reveal what they are convinced is their own inferiority.

It took several days, and a number of meetings were held before the causes of the trouble could be discovered. The meetings were conducted at first as follows:

The teacher¹ seated at a table, with a microphone, handed out to all applicants a thick piece of cardboard—on which the name of the applicant was written in script—together with a pencil and a sheet of paper. Each person, then or later, attempted to reproduce his name. This proved a good method, for the image of the name was quickly memorized, with the result that, at the end of two or three days, each person was able to read and write his own name.

At the same time, the blackboard was used to teach letters, sounds, and a few common words. Unfortunately, though, it soon became evident that the membership of the class changed every session, new pupils arriving whilst the ones who had been there before disappeared. This made any sort of progress in the teaching of reading impossible.

¹ Mr. Ba Ibrahim, a native of Podor, who speaks the language.

IDEOGRAPHIC ALPHABETS

The use of ideographic alphabets, on the other hand, proved both practical and spectacularly successful. A mass distribution was made, each inhabitant of the village receiving his own alphabet. Instructions on their use were given collectively, over the microphone. After two days, most of the adults and children in the village were able to read the whole of the alphabet. Some people mastered all the letters in a matter of hours, even minutes—an astonishing achievement when we remember that, in preparatory courses, the alphabet sometimes takes months to learn.

Obviously, it is no use demanding too much of this method; it means a flying start for large groups; it gives illiterates confidence, and its immediate results are spectacular. But its shortcomings soon become apparent; to know the letters, but not to be able to combine them is of no value whatever.

Nevertheless the ideographic alphabet, which can easily be worked out for each dialect, is the best starting point for mass teaching.

USE OF THE EPIDIASCOPE

The M'Boumba mission carried out its investigations on the basis of the favourable and unfavourable observations indicated above. The epidiascope, which is widely used in teaching, is an apparatus for projecting any object, either epidiascopically or diascopically. We shall refer later to the many different uses of this apparatus, which may be regarded as the ideal medium for the education of adults in Africa.

For the moment, we shall deal only with its use in the teaching of reading. As we have remarked above, the active members of the population, adolescents and adults, are difficult to assemble during the day, but they are invariably free at night. Generally speaking, the African night is given up to activities of all kinds. The men and women return from the fields; the evening meal, long in cooking, is not eaten until late at night. The evening air is cool enough for intellectual pursuits; people like to gather round and talk with their fellows, to listen to the tomtom, and to take part in festivals and dancing. The night thus becomes a time of relaxation and leisure, when people are free to respond to any summons.

But the problem is often how to work at night with little or no light. The use of the epidiascope has solved this.

Drawn by various different distractions: cinema, music, news bulletins, etc., 500 to 1,000 people gather in front of our screen every evening. There is no difficulty in fitting in the public reading lesson at some stage in the evening.

Letters, common words and sounds are projected onto the screen; drawings or diagrams help to explain them. We use loudspeakers and a microphone to give explanations and to put questions.

These lessons were completely successful from the outset, partly owing to a very important psychological factor: because in the darkness, people are much less inhibited, and less afraid than in daylight of disgracing themselves by making mistakes. As a result, classes are lively, with the pupils taking an active part in the proceedings.

Every day new ground is covered; but at the same time, past lessons are revised with the help of the earlier texts, which are kept for the purpose.

Attention is held by the variety of methods used: first, some useful word will be thrown onto the screen—a bottle with the word 'Poison', a notice with the word 'Danger', 'Slow down', 'Dispensary', 'School'; then, perhaps, some of the place-names of the region—M'Boumba, Dakar, Podor, A.O.F. (French West Africa), Senegal, etc.

Then, suddenly, an envelope will be shown on the screen, bearing the name of someone in the class, who, recognizing his name with a cry of pleasure, comes up to claim the letter, which will often contain a small present.

Another time it will be a page of reading which incorporates some of the sounds

studied in place-names, the names of people, or of objects with which the village is familiar. Or a page from a spelling book may be shown.

Every day, the best written work or drawings submitted by the students are shown on the screen; the speaker congratulates the successful students over the microphone, amidst loud applause.

So reading lessons go on in an atmosphere of uninhibited fun, competition and amusement; this excellent method is being constantly improved in the light of experience.

It must also be emphasized that this method has the added advantage of being partially independent of the pupil's wish to learn. His eyes held by the lighted screen, his ears assailed by the loudspeakers, make it almost impossible for his attention to wander—indeed, no spectator can entirely escape the simultaneous appeal to ear and eye.

This method has also another advantage over the blackboard—that texts can be quickly changed, individual words or letters detached, sections repeated, and texts prepared beforehand, so that they can be flashed onto the screen one after another without wasting time.

OTHER ADDITIONAL METHODS FOR TEACHING READING

1. Parallel with this group work, a class was organized for adolescents. At first, those approached replied bluntly that they did not want to go 'to school', and would rather stay and look after their flocks. Then later, after some collective lessons and individual discussions, they came back and asked us to arrange lessons for them during the day. Every afternoon, therefore, the mission's teacher held an intensive course for a group of some fifteen adolescents, who, by the time the mission left, were able to read a simple text and write a short letter. It is the adolescents who benefit most from intensive training, since they are mentally more receptive than adults, and have a greater wish to learn and capacity for concentration than children.
2. The text of each day's reading lesson is reproduced by linograph and copies are distributed to students, who thus have a permanent record of a reading course specially adapted to local conditions. Illustrations can also be reproduced in this way. The main disadvantage is that the sheets are flimsy, and soon get tattered or lost. It would be better if they were made into a collection, clipped together and placed in a cover, just before the mission leaves; the village would then be provided with a textbook adapted to local needs, and already familiar to users.

CONCLUSION

It is possible, by group methods, to teach adults the rudiments of reading and writing in a relatively short time; but although the results obtained by such methods may sometimes be spectacular, it is important to realize their limitations. For illiterates to have learnt the alphabet, to be able to read and write their own names and to know a few useful everyday words is already an achievement, if only from the psychological point of view. How proud our pupils were, at the elections on 30 March, to be able, for the first time in their lives, to recognize their own voting cards! But we must remember that things learned quickly are quickly forgotten. Experience of education in Africa shows that children who attended school up to the elementary level have frequently forgotten even how to read by the time they reach adulthood. That is why the only really effective way of abolishing illiteracy is by setting up schools. Even so, provided we are content not to aim too high, it is possible to achieve results with adult populations, by imparting to them a few useful practical lessons and seeing that they are thoroughly absorbed. The important point is that the adult, having discovered that reading is useful, shall be inspired from then on to demand that his children be educated.

OPEN FORUM

A Commentary of the Article 'On Reconsidering Fundamental Education' by T. R. Batten¹

J. G. GRANDSIMON

MR. BATTEN is to be commended for his careful analysis of Unesco's views on fundamental education. He has provided us with an admirable opportunity to rethink some of the generally accepted principles of a major problem having serious implications for the future of the human race. Without losing sight of the fact that, against the magnitude of the problem, Unesco's present activities are no more than first steps, it seems appropriate to ask if the moment has not come when we should modify some of our conceptions.

It should be emphasized at the beginning that it was Unesco's responsibility to elaborate a doctrine for fundamental education. This doctrine is sufficiently supple to allow Unesco's Member States to make the necessary adaptations of the methods to suit their own circumstances, traditions and national preferences.

Mr. Batten appears to fear that the programme elaborated by Unesco has not placed sufficient emphasis on the development of man 'as a citizen and as an individual', so that he is only approached 'as a worker'.

That it is necessary to teach each man the art of living with his fellows, or, in other words, to develop a civic sense and inculcate a feeling of personal dignity, is certainly one of the highest aspects of fundamental education so far as Unesco pursues a world-wide campaign for peace. But can these exalted objectives be attained without a minimum of elementary education, without a preliminary improvement of those economic and social conditions in which the mass of still illiterate people find themselves?

Fundamental education must, it seems, start with a rapid and efficient literacy campaign and set its sights on immediate and tangible targets: the improvement of sanitary conditions; the struggle for the protection and better utilization of the soil; the fight for better economic conditions.

In this regard, France sees in the widespread struggle against illiteracy the starting-point for all future useful and progressive action. She attaches such importance to this problem that a Basic French language is at present being constructed, whose elements are simple yet grammatically correct, and every effort is being made to commit to writing the local languages and dialects spoken in her overseas territories.

But can the country of the Rights of Man in her present and future programmes of fundamental education, ignore the sacred rights of the individual and the citizen?

Mr. Batten approaches the profoundly human aspect of fundamental education when he asks how the programmes drawn up by Unesco can be reconciled with the wishes of the people involved.

But Unesco has expressed so frequently the desire to see the basis of fundamental education laid down by the people themselves, and conforming to a plan capable of responding to their needs and aspirations, that Mr. Batten's fears would appear to be groundless.

Surely no experiment would have any chance of success unless supported wholeheartedly by members of the community in which it is to be carried out. Schooling can be made compulsory for children but fundamental education is intended for adults whose personalities are already formed and matured and whose needs must be taken into consideration by those entrusted with the improvement of their status. The success of these educators will be in direct proportion to their ability to enlist the co-operation of all the technicians concerned in the region.

¹ See issue of July 1952.

Staff recruited from outside must, whenever possible, be kept to a strict minimum so that those members of a team recruited locally, can—by establishing from the arrival of the mission, reciprocal relations of mutual friendship and confidence with the people among whom they must work—conquer that distrust which is likely to arise in local communities.

The participation of women will be especially sought, for they are the guardians of the home and, in Africa, if not elsewhere, the children's first teachers.

When the mission has left, will it not be necessary to have trained some good workers among the population who can assume the responsibility of continuing the work begun?

In the address he gave to the French National Commission for Unesco on 12 May of this year, Mr. Camerlynck, Director of National Education in French West Africa, stated, concerning the work in M'boumba (Senegal):

'One must not believe that the African village is an amorphous mass which can be moulded at will. It has its soul, its sensibilities, its taboos. It would be very easy, too easy in fact, for someone coming from outside to violate these without wishing to, and to bring about an immediate and complete breakdown in the programme of fundamental education.'

This statement by an eminent educator, applicable no doubt to other regions besides Africa, is relevant to this debate.

Mr. Batten also makes some very pertinent remarks on the training of the personnel for work in fundamental education.

In this respect he observes that Unesco appears to see in this type of education a special activity complementary to the school structure in the regions where its programme is applied.

There is a technical side to all educational work. The struggle against illiteracy can only be conducted by experienced teachers, the specialists in education, and if, for example, the primary school enrolments in French Africa increase over the next five years by 50 per cent as is planned, the construction of schools and the accelerated training of teachers will not be without appreciable influence on the literacy campaigns for adults.

As for social education in all its aspects, it would seem that the collaboration of the teacher will be still indispensable so as to help doctors and agricultural specialists have the educational aspects of their work understood by the local people.

In the broadest sense, the participation of the school system thus appears justified by the clear educational aspect of the work. Is this to say that the school system must assume full responsibility for fundamental education?

If this were done, serious difficulties would arise owing to the administrative structure of overseas territories and the fact that the different services contributing to fundamental education have an autonomous character and an independence in function. It would thus seem preferable to co-ordinate their activities.

It is this solution which has been decided upon in French African territories and which up to now has given excellent results.

Is it necessary, now, when fundamental education has a sphere of activity and methods which are proper to it, to envisage the creation of a specialized and independent personnel? As far as we are concerned, it would be premature to take such a position. A definite doctrine will only be decided upon after the necessary period of experimentation has been completed and the definition of methods has been agreed on, but it is permissible to suppose that the creation of an autonomous service, even if it keeps clear of financial obstacles, will run the risk of provoking certain reactions from the population involved.

It certainly seems desirable to create in Africa a centre where the specialists in the different disciplines can be trained in the special methods of fundamental education.

NOTES AND RECORDS

UNESCO'S PARTICIPATION IN THE UNITED NATIONS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE PROGRAMME

From time to time we are asked by our readers to give details of Unesco's technical assistance programme in fundamental and adult education. It has seemed to us that we might give them an indication of the breadth of this programme, which complements and interlocks with Unesco's own normal programme, by describing some of the projects in these fields as they stand mid-way through 1952. It should be emphasized that these projects are aimed at starting activities which will then be carried on by the countries themselves and, indeed, that local participation in them is an essential feature and contributes greatly to their success. This review, therefore, will also indicate national as well as international activity in these educational spheres. The major part of technical assistance lies in the field of technology, so that the projects described in summarized fashion below are merely a selection from what is in fact a much broader programme.

To give some indication of the scope of this programme we may say that, up to June 1952, Unesco had received 135 requests for technical assistance from 37 countries; 35 basic agreements with countries had been signed, to include 93 projects. Missions are now operating in 26 countries involving 58 projects; 137 experts are in the field on mission assignments and 25 experts have completed their assignments. Recruiting is under way for 73 new posts, and 238 experts altogether are expected to be at duty stations by the end of 1952.

In 1951, 130 fellowships were awarded and 172 are authorized for 1952. The equipment expenditure for this year is expected to reach \$438,000 of which \$80,000 had been spent by 31 May. Of the 1952 budget total of \$3,600,000, a total of \$1,521,189 had been spent as of 31 May this year.

In certain instances (e.g. Philippines, Thailand) we describe the full mission activities to show how the fundamental and adult education project dovetail in with an over-all plan.

Cambodia

An agreement was signed in March 1952, to initiate a programme of technical co-operation

with Cambodia. Mr. R. Berriault (Canada), has been appointed to begin work in fundamental education.

He will work with an expert in compulsory primary education provided under the Unesco Normal Programme, preparing the recommendations for a fundamental education programme as part of a general educational development plan.

Ceylon

The Unesco mission assisting the Government of Ceylon in organizing and directing a fundamental education demonstration and training centre in the Minneriya area is composed of Dr. S. Hatch (U.S.), expert in fundamental education and director of the centre, a specialist in literacy techniques, Mr. S. Rao (India), and an audio-visual expert, Mr. Christensen (Denmark). Working as members of the joint mission are an ILO expert in cottage industries and co-operatives, Mr. Hakanssen (Denmark), a WHO specialist in health education, Mr. L. Bickham, and Mr. G. L. Reisner, expert in agricultural extension appointed by FAO. Minneriya is a project of the Ceylonese Government for land reclamation and settlements.

The mission has visited surrounding villages to talk with the people and assess the 'felt needs' of the 56 villages in the settlement area. Adult education centres have been formed in each village, and circulating libraries have been introduced. Visual aids are being used, some 15 educational films being shown in the villages every month. An easy primer and a series of simple follow-up booklets in the Sinhalese language have been produced to help adults gain literacy.

Training of rural village leaders was started in December 1951, in a seminar attended by 120 teachers and rural development officers. They were selected to head the nine provincial training centres for rural development.

The Rural Development Movement, sponsored by the Ministry of Home Affairs, works by getting villages to form rural development societies to undertake self-help and rural welfare work. A Unesco specialist in the training of rural workers, Mrs. Emily Hatch (U.S.), is assisting this programme by setting up training centres in different parts of the country for

training teams of workers in rural welfare. The results and techniques of the Minneriya centre will be spread through this work.

China (Formosa)

Under an agreement signed in May 1952, an expert in the production and use of audio-visual aids will be sent to Formosa to assist in the Government's fundamental education programme. Special courses in audio-visual education will be given at Taiwan Teachers' College. Taiwan today is in need of more technical experts and trained workers in various fields of production. Improvement of living conditions in the island is closely connected with raising the educational standard of the people through more schools and training centres for adults.

Chile

Negotiations are under way with Chile regarding the initiation of technical assistance programmes in fundamental education, secondary education and technical education.

Ecuador

An expert in rural cultural missions, Mr. J. Jiménez-Castellanos (Mexico), is engaged in organizing rural missions in fundamental education, advising the Government on a national programme and devising methods of work for these missions. He has been working with the heads of the Rural Cultural Extension Services, developing plans for improving the service. Practical work among the rural population of Calacali on sanitation, vaccination of animals against epizootics, dressmaking, cooking and sports activities, have been carried out to demonstrate new methods.

El Salvador

Unesco is participating with WHO in the development of a health demonstration area project in Cuscatlán Valley. Two fundamental education specialists have been sent to El Salvador to work with the WHO team and to advise the Government on the development of fundamental education. A specialist in literacy, Mr. J. Moreno Jasso (Mexico), head of the mission, and Mr. de Clerck (Belgium), expert in fundamental education, are co-operating with WHO in plans for the health demonstration area. An experimental project of a demonstration and training centre in fundamental education, with special emphasis on health education, will serve the broad pro-

gramme of valley development and show new training techniques applicable to other areas.

To give greater impetus to the literacy campaign, round-table discussions have been arranged to study the problems of illiteracy and to recommend practical solutions. Lectures have been given on the role of cultural missions and fundamental education to persons who are working in the demonstration area. Orientation courses have been given for teachers of the Normal School of Izalco who are working in the region of Opico, within the demonstration area. Conferences have been held with groups of doctors, sanitary officers, and other specialists in the area. Mr. de Clerck has also completed a survey of the conditions of life of the people of the area.

An educational adviser, Mr. F. Porta (Italy), was sent to El Salvador early in 1951 as a member of the United Nations Economic Survey Mission. He has completed a survey of the educational system and needs, and prepared a working plan for educational development as part of the economic development of the country.

Haiti

Beginning in 1951, the international expenses of the Marbial Valley project came under the technical assistance programme, and an effort is being made to link and extend the work in the Valley on a national scale. Four technical assistance experts have worked with the fundamental education project in the Marbial. The pilot project has now entered its third year, and has reached a stage of maturity which makes it possible to attempt to spread more widely the techniques used in Marbial. The first training school for lecturers on fundamental education was inaugurated early in 1952 at Lafond, with 15 instructors for adult education centres in attendance.

The Unesco experts in Haiti are: Mr. Paul Jaume (France), educational adviser and head of mission; Mr. R. Garraud (France), head of the international team at the fundamental education training centre; Mr. Donald Burns (U.K.), expert in the production of literacy teaching and reading materials; and Mr. S. D. Rigolo (Canada), expert in audio-visual aids. The WHO has sent Miss Demers (Canada), expert in sanitary education, the FAO Mr. Maymon (Puerto Rico), expert in agricultural techniques; the ILO is sending three experts in small industries.

The new head of the mission arrived in Haiti in August 1951. A thorough analysis has been made of the general educational conditions in Haiti and recommendations have been made

for the further development of primary and fundamental education.

Mr. Garraud has helped with the organization and administration of the Marbial centre, and in the training of rural leaders and directors of adult education centres. The centre is giving intensive training for a period of six months in agriculture, hygiene, general education and practical work.

Mr. Donald Burns (U.K.) has been working with the Marbial centre and at Port-au-Prince on the preparation of textbooks and other educational materials for use in the fundamental education programme at the centre and in the school system. The difficult question of determining the language of instruction and textbooks is being analysed and discussed with the officials concerned. Mr. Burns has also given advice on the production of textbooks for teaching hygiene in schools and to industrial workers, and has assisted in the preparation of a simple text in Creole for teaching adults elementary arithmetic. After a survey of rural schools, a plan for a series of graded readers in French was prepared. An introductory book in the series has already been printed, as well as the first series of monthly bulletins on matters of current interest for the rural schools.

Mr. S. D. Rigolo (Canada), has been working on the use of audio-visual materials in fundamental education. This involves establishing a studio with proper equipment and staff, teaching the use of audio-visual aids, preparation of these aids in the studio, and their application and distribution in the field. A first filmstrip has been prepared in the studio, giving the story of how the tuberculosis germ is spread. Illustrations for textbooks have been prepared and posters designed for the Public Health Department.

Thirteen fellowships in general educational fields were awarded in 1951.

The expert in technical education, Mr. Herbert Heilig (U.S.), arrived in Haiti early in 1952. He is working on plans for an improved vocational training programme adjusted to the local economy and the Government's five-year plan. One fellowship in technical education was awarded last year and another is provided for 1952.

Indonesia

In 1951, Unesco appointed two specialists in fundamental education and visual aids to assist the Government of Indonesia in its mass education movement. The fundamental education expert, Mr. S. R. Kidwai (India), head of the mission, worked with the different governmental departments concerned with adult

fundamental education. (In December 1950, the Ministry of Education had created a Department of Mass Education to develop and carry out a plan to eradicate illiteracy.)

The Government asked that assistance in 1952 put more emphasis on primary and secondary education. Mr. M. Masud (India) was sent in March 1952 to work with the Ministry of Education on its 10-year plan of compulsory primary education.

An expert in the production of low-cost educational materials and an expert in science teaching for secondary schools are being recruited to work with Mr. Masud.

An expert in audio-visual aids, Mr. R. K. Neilson-Baxter (U.K.), has been working with the Mass Education Department in the production of audio-visual material and in training in educational film production and other visual aids. The films division of the Ministry of Information has started a six-month training course for film technicians which Mr. Neilson-Baxter is organizing. During the first month, trainees received instruction in physics, chemistry and elementary principles of photography. This was followed by practical tuition in still photography, using six cameras purchased especially for the studio. English lessons have been given and talks on theoretical aspects of cinematography, practical camera handling, and elements of sound recording. A proposal for a filmstrip production unit as part of the Mass Education Department has been accepted and is being organized. Mr. P. Hennessey (U.K.) has been appointed cameraman to assist the audio-visual expert in the training of local film technicians.

Nine fellowships during 1951 and one in 1952 were awarded in connexion with this project.

Iraq

Unesco is assisting the Government of Iraq in developing a fundamental educational centre at the Dujailah land settlement area. The first three members of the team are Mr. R. J. Rousseau (South Africa), expert in literacy techniques, Miss H. L. Hockin (Canada), specialist in the education of women, and Mr. R. V. Chitra (India), expert in co-operatives. They worked with the Ministry of Education in planning and organizing the programme to be undertaken in Dujailah. Work on the project site began in the spring of 1951. The first training seminar in fundamental education took place in September. Mr. A. B. Trowbridge (U.S.), fundamental education expert, arrived in Iraq in September, following a brief period of training at the

regional centre in Patzcuaro. Six fellowships were awarded in 1951.

Liberia

The chief of the mission gave much time to planning a fundamental education demonstration and training centre to serve Liberian village populations and eventually train rural leaders. In co-operation with Liberian officials, a survey of possible sites was made, and interview tests were conducted to assess the desires of the villagers. The site of Dimeh, about 20 miles outside Monrovia, was chosen for the centre. Mr. W. J. Rankin (U.K.), expert in fundamental education, arrived in November 1951, to assume direction of the long-term task of developing the centre. Detailed needs for the centre were laid before the Government and agreement was secured on the initial steps. A start has been made in running a small but properly organized health clinic for the Dimeh villagers. A small experimental elementary school has also been opened which will provide an intensive four-year course emphasizing agriculture and handicrafts. There is a tremendous need for improved transportation so that the villagers can get their produce to market. Working with the local people, five minor bridges have been built and two major bridges are being built.

Philippines

A comprehensive technical assistance mission began work in a combined rural-urban education project in the Philippines early in 1952. The mission will have eight experts when fully recruited. It is working with the Government of the Philippines in a country-wide programme of improving school standards and raising living standards through fundamental education techniques. The first two experts to arrive were Mr. George Bennett (U.S.), guidance and counselling, who is serving as acting chief of mission, and Mr. T. Krishnamurthy (India), fundamental and adult education. They were followed by Mr. V. Holbro (Switzerland), science education specialist, and Mr. T. J. Rowell (U.K.), teacher-training specialist. Mr. U. Ostergaard (Denmark), secondary education specialist, and Mr. E. H. Barton (U.S.), vocational education specialist, have been appointed. A rural education expert, head of mission, and a technical education specialist are being recruited.

Mr. Bennett has prepared a plan for the guidance and counselling of young people in public schools of the Philippines. This was approved by the Department of Education and a teacher

in the vocational education division has been assigned to assist in putting the plan into effect. Mr. Krishnamurthy submitted a report on the preparation and production of reading materials for barely literate adults. This was followed by conferences with writers and educational officers. An experiment in using the vernacular language as a medium for instruction in public primary schools in the province of Iloilo has been studied by Mr. Krishnamurthy. He participated in several conferences on language and rural education problems and has studied the possibility of using Tagalog as a medium for instruction in adult education.

Mr. Holbro will make a survey of the need for demonstration materials in schools and colleges throughout the country. A long-term detailed plan for improved science teaching has been submitted to the Department of Education. It is suggested that two projects be initially tried. The first is a plan for a workshop course for teachers or student teachers, emphasizing the construction of simple demonstration apparatus out of cheap local materials and ways of using them in general science, physics, agriculture, or home economics courses. The second plan is for the production of more complicated demonstration devices which cannot be built without special workshop equipment. As an experiment, apparatus will be constructed in vocational schools or private workshops for precision mechanics, with a view to making possible the manufacture of some of the most commonly used equipment which is now being imported.

Mr. Rowell is studying the requirements for teacher preparation. It is planned to prepare and try out a series of courses for teachers in selected normal schools and colleges. The secondary education specialist, Mr. Ostergaard, will organize a teaching demonstration plan at a high school. Mr. Barton will work on improved programmes and teaching in secondary schools.

Ten fellowships were awarded in 1951 in the various fields of activity with which this project is concerned.

Syria

A fundamental education project is being organized in co-operation with the Government of Syria. Mr. J. Notebaart (Netherlands), arrived early in 1952 to prepare plans for the project and work out arrangements with the Government. Two experts in literacy and audio-visual aids will complete the team in fundamental education.

One expert in rural education will advise and

work with the Government on plans for the development and expansion of rural teacher training. He will work on curricula, textbook selection, and the recruitment of students for the rural normal schools.

Thailand

A technical assistance mission has been working with the Government of Thailand for two years in a long-range programme of educational development. This programme embraces work with the school system and teacher training, and development of fundamental education. It has centred in the demonstration area of Chachoengsao, where techniques and methods of teaching are tried out, emphasis being given to relating the courses to the daily life and environment of the students. Mr. Thomas Wilson (New Zealand), teacher-training expert, served as head of mission until June 1952. He worked out co-ordinating arrangements with the Ministry of Education and the U.S. Point Four programme which have resulted in an integrated project using the full resources of all the technical assistance programmes toward a common programme of activities.

A three-member mission in education and science has been working on primary education, English and science teaching. This work is also focused in the Chachoengsao area and is linked with fundamental education. Mr. Kalund Jorgensen (Denmark), expert in primary education, Mr. E. S. Obourn (U.S.), expert in science teaching, and Mr. J. Burbank (U.K.), expert in English teaching, have also been conducting in-service courses in Bangkok. The courses are organized on a regular schedule for teachers from training colleges and for potential future lecturers. Classroom demonstrations on workshop equipment construction, lesson planning, textbook preparation, and lecturing techniques have been given. Teachers in training have been observed and suggestions made regarding their future assignments.

Mr. Kalund Jorgensen also prepared a teachers' manual in which suggestions for the training of teachers have been collected. A tentative syllabus for teacher training for college students has been discussed and approved by the group of teachers in training. In addition to the in-service programme in teacher training lectures in Bangkok, Dr. Obourn has organized an in-service course for science teachers. This course was attended by secondary science teachers and teacher-training college lecturers. Dr. Obourn has also developed plans for a science teachers' centre or institute. Mr. Burbank is concentrating on the pre-university

training college for teachers and on the work of the pre-university school. He also presides over a committee on English teaching which has completed a survey of a suitable long-term policy for the teaching of English in Thailand. Mr. Kalund Jorgensen and Dr. Obourn have completed their assignments. Dr. Obourn has been replaced by Dr. E. D. Heiss (U.S.).

The work of the mission operating in Chachoengsao has centred around six strategic points: pre-primary education, primary schools, teacher training, progressive schools, omnibus schools, and fundamental and adult education. Mr. Wilson was succeeded by Mr. K. N. Marshall (U.S.) in June 1952. A specialist in adult education Mr. Mason Alcott (U.S.) and Mr. G. Crabtree (Canada), audio-visual aids, are working as part of the international team in Chachoengsao. Mr. S. Volinsky teacher-training expert, arrived in July 1952, to complete the fundamental education team. The mission found it necessary to extend the number of years devoted to primary education. This has been done by creating a one-year class of the kindergarten type for Thai children from five to six years old, and a three-year post-primary course in what are to be called 'progressive schools'. Two pre-primary classes were created in two selected schools in the pilot area and suitable syllabuses, games, and instructional material were prepared. The mission selected 12 primary schools in the project area and, with the local teachers, introduced reforms in curricula syllabuses, methodology, and instructional materials. An inservice teacher training programme was introduced in the area to familiarize school teachers with the new methods and techniques used in the 12 selected schools and to acquaint them with the progress and results of the educational experiment at Chachoengsao. There are two vocational schools in the area, one for carpentry for boys and the other for home economics for girls. Both have been developed and modernized with remodelled workshops.

Mr. A. V. Hill (U.K.) has been appointed science adviser. He will assist the Government in the establishment of an advisory science office to develop scientific research and in the dissemination of scientific knowledge and techniques in all fields.

Seven fellowships have been awarded in education and science fields in 1951 and eight in fundamental education.

Regional Fundamental Educational Training and Production Centre, Sirs-el-Layen, Egypt

It is planned that the centre will open in January 1953, with an 18-month programme

of study and an enrolment of 50 students. The training emphasis will be on active participation in projects for adult literacy and on improving methods in agriculture, health and community development. The participants will return to their own countries to assist with national fundamental education programmes.

Unesco will assist in creating the centre by providing nine experts and 150 one-month scholarships in 1952. Dr. Abbas Ammar (Egypt) has been appointed director of the Centre and Mr. W. Collings (New Zealand) has been appointed administrative officer. This will be a co-operative project in which experts from the UN, WHO, FAO, and ILO will participate.

Joint Field Working Party to the Andean Highlands (Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia)

Following the recommendation of the ILO committee on indigenous labour, an ILO/UN expert prepared a plan for a combined rural development project for Ecuador, Peru and Bolivia. This plan was discussed by the Technical Assistance Board and a joint field working party was approved to complete preparations with the Governments for beginning a rural development project to serve the indigenous people in the Andean Highlands of Ecuador, Peru and Bolivia. If successful, the project could be extended to other countries.

The team of experts for this initial survey and negotiation, headed by Dr. Ernest Beaglehole, (N.Z.), left for Latin America in early summer, 1952. Unesco has assigned an expert in fundamental education, Mr. G. Rubio Orbe (Ecuador), as a member of this multi-agency team. It is anticipated that Unesco will assume responsibility for organizing and maintaining a fundamental education and production training centre for rural workers, as part of the whole rural development demonstration project in which the UN and other specialized agencies will be participating.

MYSORE STATE ADULT EDUCATION COUNCIL¹

The Mysore State Adult Education Council has been doing pioneer service for over a decade. During its initial stages, its chief aim was to make adults literate but, with growing experience, it was inevitable that various problems should arise and practical solutions for them had to be found.

To keep pace with a rapidly changing environment around him, it is not enough for a man to be merely literate. It became necessary for the Adult Education Council to provide

ways and means for developing a civic sense and an interest in economic, social, physical, cultural and ethical questions among adults. Its activities were expanded, beyond mere literacy, to the promotion of the following objectives: follow-up reading book clubs; rural libraries; community centres; revival and encouragement of folk arts; cultivating interest in science and general knowledge; rural development work including village sanitation.

The Comprehensive Fundamental Education Scheme.

Several types of adult education centres organized and conducted by the Mysore State Adult Education Council are spread all over the state. Where one type of adult education centre exists, it is rare to have a second one of a different type, the chief reason for this being that adult education work in the state is mainly carried out through voluntary efforts.

Such volunteers can only give their spare time and progress is inevitably slow. On the other hand the comprehensive scheme of fundamental education helps to bring about multi-directional progress in the field of adult education.

Each comprehensive centre will be under the charge of a full-time organizer (assisted by his wife) who will devote his full time to the work of the centre.

Their main functions will be:

1. Literacy work.
 2. Conducting rural libraries to help improve the literacy level (and check relapses).
 3. Providing general education for the masses through the reading of newspapers and discussions on world affairs.
 4. Conducting community centres to enable the villagers to assemble and discuss the essential needs of their village, the needs of individuals, and decide upon the best ways and means of meeting these needs through joint co-operative efforts.
 5. Organizing co-operative (voluntary) teams of workers from amongst the villagers for rural development and welfare work.
 6. Promoting harmony amongst the individual members in village families.
 7. Reviving and practising folk arts and games.
- An organizer will work for one full year in a village. If need be, he may continue his efforts in the same village for one more year.

Before proceeding to the next village he would make permanent arrangements for progressive continuation of the work done in

1. Based on notes supplied by General-Secretary of the Council.

the village by entrusting it to the care of a local youth association started by him.

FIFTEENTH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON PUBLIC EDUCATION

This annual conference, convened jointly by Unesco and the International Bureau of Education, was held at Geneva from 7 to 16 July 1952.

A record number of countries (51) were represented by delegates from their Ministries of Education as well as the UN, ILO, FAO, WHO.

The conference's discussions centred around two topics: the Access of Women to Education and the Teaching of Natural Science in Secondary Schools. Full discussions on the first topic were based on a general report prepared by the IBE and three working documents ('Women and Education in Chile', 'Women and Education in Yugoslavia' and 'Access of Women to Education; a preliminary statistical report') prepared by Unesco. The IBE report was based on the answers given by Ministers of Education to a questionnaire circulated in advance. In addition, discussions were held on 37 reports on national developments in education submitted to the Conference by Ministers of Education.

There was general agreement on the necessity for giving equal opportunity to boys and girls and the Conference adopted Recommendation no. 34 which will be sent to Ministers of Education. This suggests that countries should make careful studies on the present situation and then develop plans for improving facilities; a number of guiding rules are also given for the provision of general fundamental and vocational education.

Unesco will be publishing in the near future *Women and Education* which will appear in the series 'Problems in Education' and will include the two studies on Chile and Yugoslavia with the addition of a study on India.

The conference also adopted Recommendation No. 35 on the Teaching of Natural Science in Secondary Schools. This reaffirms the important place which natural science should hold in the curricula, describes the aims and desirable methods for such teaching and makes suggestions about materials and teacher training.

The *International Yearbook of Education 1952* contains the national reports on educational developments submitted to the Conference, together with an introductory review. *Access of Women to Education*, is based on the information supplied by Ministries of Education as is *Teaching of Natural Science in Secondary Schools*. These are all published jointly by Unesco and the IBE as will also be *Proceedings and Recom-*

mendations of the Fifteenth Conference on Public Education. Recommendations Nos. 34 and 35 are printed separately as leaflets. All these publications are available from Unesco, Paris, from the IBE, Palais Wilson, Geneva or from Unesco Sales Agents.

RECENT EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS IN AFGHANISTAN

In the report which the Unesco Educational Mission to Afghanistan presented to the Afghan Government at the end of 1949, it recommended a series of fundamental reforms covering all aspects of education.¹ The Afghan authorities, alive to the importance of education, to which they were already devoting more than 18 per cent of official revenue, reacted to the report by inviting Unesco to send out an expert to advise on the next steps to be taken and to assist in the immediate implementation of some of the mission's recommendations.

Working in close collaboration with the Ministry of Education at Kabul and with the Afghan National Commission for Unesco, this expert drew up the following three series of texts:

Teacher-training and Inspection of Schools

A decree providing for the establishment of a Faculty of Education, with syllabuses, timetables and instructions for the staff.

A decree providing a temporary system for training secondary school teachers by probationary work.

A decree regularizing the recruitment of primary and secondary school inspectors.

A proposal for raising teachers' salaries.

Administration and Practice of Education

Statutes governing public education (curricula, syllabuses, methods, structure and relation of the different levels and branches of instruction, school organization).

Instructions to teachers on the teaching of subjects in the primary school curriculum.

Instructions to inspectors on the scope and methods of their work.

A decree reforming the central and regional administration of public education (finance, staff, administrative techniques).

Fundamental Education (Children and Adults) and the *Technical Education* on which depends

1. J. Debi  sse, W. Abbott and Harold R. Benjamin *Report of the Mission to Afghanistan*. Paris, Unesco, 1952, 86 pp.

the country's economic and social future; draft proposals for a fundamental education campaign with the assistance of Unesco, FAO and WHO; the extension of agricultural and technical training; the setting up of vocational training centres attached to rural primary schools; and the founding of a training college for women primary school teachers.

Other texts that have been prepared deal with such matters as the founding of a monthly bulletin for teachers, laboratory equipment, textbook committee, increasing use of audio-visual aids, teaching about the United Nations.

In addition to his work on the above texts, some of which are already effective, the Unesco expert assisted in the implementation of the following measures:

1. Reform of the School of Agriculture. The necessary credits have been voted for the recruitment of three teachers to be selected by Unesco. A farm, an experimental centre and livestock have been provided, and in both the curriculum and the teaching methods great emphasis has been placed on practical work.
2. Development of the School of Engineering by the purchase of an automobile repair shop; the beginning of the construction of a foundry; the admission of young pupils from the provinces as residential pupils supported by governmental funds.
3. Co-operation of the Primary School Teachers Training College with the fundamental education programme by the inclusion of Public Health in the curriculum.
4. Literacy classes at Kabul: five for men (220 pupils), three for women (150); two for army recruits (130); one for workers of the electricity company (40); one in a country village. Distribution of 5,000 special manuals and teaching material, preparation of a second series of texts on public health, religion, etc.
5. The first two years of schooling to be in the mother tongue. Study of the second national language to be begun after this two-year period.
6. Practical training for students who are to become secondary teachers. Each week students prepare a lesson which they give in the presence of a teacher. At the end of their studies they perform a year's probationary service under the direction of an experienced teacher.
7. Formation of a library of educational films at the Ministry of Public Education.
8. Primary teacher-training classes at the *lycée* for girls.
9. A 35-75 per cent increase in salary of teachers.

In 1949 the Unesco educational mission noted in the section of its report dealing with elementary education: 'The Afghans have begun to march along a road from which no people in modern times has ever turned back'. The latest news from this country would indicate that far from proving an exception to this rule Afghanistan is determined to accelerate its progress.

MEETING OF EXPERTS ON AFRICAN LANGUAGES AND ENGLISH IN EDUCATION

The meeting proposed by Unesco to consider the problems of the use in education of African languages in relation to English, where English is the accepted second language, will be held at Jos in Nigeria in the second half of November 1952, on the invitation of the United Kingdom and Nigerian Governments. A member of the staff of Unesco's Department of Education visited Nigeria in July to make arrangements for the meeting with the authorities on the spot. The Union of South Africa and the Republic of Liberia will also take part in the meeting. There are to be some ten participants from areas in Africa which are directly concerned with the subject under consideration, and a small number of observers from other regions.

Those who take part in the meeting will be persons of wide experience in the problems involved, and their discussions and conclusions should be of great value. They will examine the position in the various territories with which they are familiar, analyse the problems and possible solutions, and make recommendations designed to lessen or overcome language difficulties and to help forward the improvement of procedures, methods, and materials used in teaching people to read and write in their mother tongue and in the second language.

JAMAICAN SEMINAR ON ADULT EDUCATION (1-17 SEPTEMBER)

A seminar on adult education was organized by the University College of the West Indies with the technical assistance of Unesco. The theme of the seminar was 'The Role of Adult Education in the Caribbean'—with the emphasis on the fact that adult education is a vital part of any programme of industrial and agricultural development.

All the Caribbean countries were invited. The purpose and scope of the seminar and the details of the programme were discussed with interested persons in Haiti, Puerto Rico, and with members of the staff of the Caribbean Commission. In addition, advisers in the United States and the United Kingdom had been consulted.

The seminar was held at the Manor House Hotel, six miles from Kingston, and ran from 1 to 17 September. The staff included Mr. Simon Rottenberg, Dr. Lydia Roberts and Dr. Rodriguez Bou of the University of Puerto Rico, Miss Ella Griffin and Mr. Jean François Gabriel who are working for different projects of Unesco, and Mr. P. M. Sherlock, Director of the Department of Extra-Mural Studies in the University of the West Indies. Unesco, in accordance with one of its programme resolutions, provided the services of a member of its headquarters' staff, who acted in the capacity of an expert.

Among the main subjects discussed were the following: Home Economics, Literacy, the production of Basic Material for Community Education, the Place of Co-operatives in Adult Education and the Role of Public Libraries. We hope to include fuller notes in our next issue.

CO-OPERATIVE ACTIVITY IN THE ETAWAH PILOT DEVELOPMENT PROJECT OF THE STATE OF UTTAR PRADESH IN INDIA

In September 1948, the State of Uttar Pradesh in India started a project in 100 villages of the Etawah district which has a population of 79,000 and covers an area of about eighty square miles. The object was to work out an all-round development of rural living and find the proper organization and methods by which real and lasting improvement could come to the life of the villager.

The organization now consists of multi-purpose field workers, well-qualified technical men available as consultants to all the villages of the project, and an overall Development Officer to co-ordinate work and supplies and to maintain contact with the government departments and other work agencies outside the project. The field level worker has a basic qualification in agriculture and has been given training in co-operative methods, public health work, vaccination, first aid, inoculation and treatment of ordinary diseases of cattle, as well as social education work. He lives in the middle of his circle of three to five villages and is responsible for all the work in those villages. Technical officers qualified in agriculture, agricultural engineering, animal husbandry, public health and extension principles and methods guide and supervise the work of these village level workers. The villager has to approach only his local field officer for advice on any matter or for anything that he wants to get done. If the field officer is unable to advise on any particular item, he consults the appropriate technical officer concerned

and if necessary the Development Officer arranges for still more expert advice from outside. Close contact is maintained between all the workers through fortnightly staff meetings at which there is detailed discussion of work done and future work plans are made. The field workers live with the villagers and through service and contact win their confidence.

The project utilizes the technique of camps for training village level workers. In these camps the trainees themselves, in batches, do all their work: cooking, cleaning up, keeping accounts and running co-operative stores. Half the day is spent in practical field work. In the afternoon there are group discussions. In these group discussions village approach is emphasized.

The literacy campaign is closely linked to the whole programme of community development. A fortnightly newsletter, '*Mandir se*', serves as the organ of the project. It was started on 2 October 1949 and by March 1951 had 1,200 regular subscribers. For the first three months it was distributed free and for the next nine months at the nominal subscription of Rs.1 per annum and later Rs.2. Reading and ability to write a passage dictated from this paper constitute the minimum standard of literacy. The paper carries information on agriculture, animal husbandry, public health, co-operatives, social education, news of the project, of the country and of the world.

Use has also been made of the villagers' institutes and the training camps for training villagers. Five or six influential village leaders from each *panchayat* are invited to attend a training camp for 10 or 12 days. They are given preliminary training in agriculture, animal husbandry, public health and social education. They spread these ideas in the village and form a nucleus for the easy reception of new ideas.

The results achieved by this closely knit programme of community development have been very encouraging. Through introduction of improved varieties of crops in the whole area, yields have gone up considerably. The average yields of wheat and potatoes have been doubled, the breed of cattle is also improving and cattle deaths from epidemics have almost entirely been eliminated through preventive inoculations. Diseases like malaria and cholera are now rare. Cultural and communal life has grown round social and community centres in each village. Increased income of the people through improved agriculture is reflected in better living, improvement in housing, construction of schools for children by villagers themselves, construction of their own approach roads and similar activities.

Co-operatives have played a very important part in bringing about these results; they have been developed to provide all the requirements of the people as they adopt advanced methods of agriculture and better ways of living.

When work was started, the co-operative organization in the area consisted of only 13 credit societies serving only a part of the total area. The only work these societies did was to lend money to cultivators at 12 per cent interest and to recover it in four half-yearly instalments. These societies have now been organized on a multipurpose basis and their number has increased to 105. Their share capital and working capital has gone up from Rs.3,930 and Rs.27,850 in the beginning of the Project to Rs.43,250 and Rs.225,850 in the year 1951. Number of members to whom loans, mostly for agricultural purposes, were advanced has gone up from 523 in the year 1947 to 31,424 in 1951 and the amount of loan has gone up from Rs.36,586 to Rs.346,818. Though being 'multipurpose', and some of them therefore dealing with the distribution of agricultural requirements, essential consumer goods like cloth, fabricated iron material, cement, etc., the function of these societies is still primarily that of providing credit facilities. Co-operative activities other than provision of credit has come to be concentrated at the seven central unions formed by 15 or 16 societies each. No village in the project area is now more than four miles from a union which runs a seed-store for distribution of improved varieties of seeds, stocks, improved implements introduced in the area, manures, fertilizers, insecticides and equipment for anti-malaria and plant protection operations and commodities such as iron and cement. The share and working capital of the seven unions now are Rs.22,810 and Rs.335,860 as against the figures of Rs.3,020 and Rs.9,716 for two unions in 1948.

The varied activities of the Co-operative Unions and their useful work is reflected in the distribution in 1951 of 7,069 cwt. of pure seed of various varieties, 8,000 fruit and fuel plants and 329 agricultural implements. Seven hundred and six cwt. of manures and fertilizers were sold. Their activities are rapidly expanding. Four societies under the unions have made their own tubewells—two of which have turned out to be artesian wells. All the seven unions are running brick kilns; they are producing over 10 million bricks every year for the transformation of mud houses into brick houses with building material available almost literally at the door.

Through their work in these organizations directors of the Co-operative Unions and societies are becoming more and more inter-

ested in community work and developing into leaders in their own areas who play a more and more active role in social, cultural and other development activities. An Agricultural Educational and Industrial Society has been formed at Bakewar to run a Higher Secondary School with emphasis on agricultural education for sons of farmers. A farm is attached to this school and it is proposed to organize short courses on improved practices in agriculture for farmers also. A co-operative farming society has been formed with an area of 500 acres and a membership of 30. Expanding co-operative activities promise further development of the habit of community action and an awakening sense of social responsibility. There is every hope that in a few years a large part of the work in villages will be done and all immediate needs fulfilled through co-operative action.

In January this year this project was accepted for inclusion in Unesco's system of associated projects.

WORLD HANDBOOK OF EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION AND STATISTICS

This volume has just been published in English and copies are available from the national distributors of Unesco publications listed on the inside back cover. The French edition will appear early in 1953.

Scope

The volume covers 57 countries in a fairly comparable way. The descriptive texts for each country have been written to a standard form so as to cover the legal basis and administration of education and the organization of the school system. The statistical tables are similarly uniform and are supplemented by diagrams which are based on a pattern already used in the publications of the United States Office of Education ('*Foreign Education*' Series) and the American Council of Education.

This is Unesco's first attempt to survey education throughout the world. The difficulties in our way are almost too obvious to mention: lack of information, various dates to which the available data refer, lack of comparability between countries. For example, some countries put 'classes' and others 'schools' in presenting their educational statistics; there are differences in the various definitions of 'primary education', 'secondary education', etc.

Some Points of Interest in the First Edition

Some of the States represented have made a special effort to collect statistics along the lines requested by Unesco even when this was

not the usual national pattern. The cases of Ceylon, Ecuador and Sweden may be mentioned.

A great deal of effort by National Commissions for Unesco have gone into the book. Each country has, at the beginning of the entry, a statement about the source of information. In the following cases the National Commission is the sole or major source: Belgium, Denmark, Ecuador, France, India, Luxembourg, Netherlands, New Zealand, Sweden, Switzerland, Thailand, United Kingdom, United States of America, Yugoslavia.

The book contains accounts of educational systems that are not readily available from other sources—Thailand, Yugoslavia, Saudi Arabia among others.

Despite its present incompleteness the book gives a bird's eye view of educational systems in all parts of the world. The present 57 countries are distributed as follows: United States of America and Canada; 17 States in Latin America; 23 in Europe; 11 in Asia; 2 in Africa; 2 in Australasia.

The brief glossary at the end is an attempt to describe the various existing terms—in over

a dozen languages—for types of schools. It is only on the basis of such glossary treatment that some measure of comparability can be arrived at since each of the major terms used in educational systems must first be adequately defined.

Summing up

The Handbook is not an analytical or interpretative work. This task is left to the students of comparative education of the various countries. Unesco's role is to marshal the facts and provide educators with a fairly compact work of reference in two readily accessible languages, English and French. It will therefore be hazardous to make comparisons between countries or to deduce general conclusions on the present state of education in the world. What may be claimed for the Handbook is that it is the most comprehensive collection of educational data yet made. With this foundation, Unesco and the National Commissions together may go ahead and prepare further editions which will make good present gaps and shortcomings.

CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

Gloria Gumper is Resident Tutor, Department of Extra-Mural Studies, University College of the West Indies, Jamaica.

The Rev. J. Alun Thomas, Penycae Vicarage, Wrexham, North Wales, has made a special study of the life and the work of Griffith Jones.

Dr. E. Koutaissoff is a member of the Faculty of Commerce and Social Science, Department of Economics and Institutions of the U.S.S.R., University of Birmingham.

Ethel E. Wallis is on the staff of the Summer Institute of Linguistics, Glendale, California.

Dr. Elaine Mielke Townsend is on the staff of the Summer Institute of Linguistics, Mexico City.

Ellen Arsenault is Executive Assistant to the Director, Extension Department, St. Francis Xavier University.

André Terrisse is Head of the Bureau pédagogique, Office of the Director of Education, French West Africa.

J. G. Grandisimon is specially concerned with French Overseas Territories in the French Ministry of National Education.

NEW CATALOGUE OF UNESCO PUBLICATIONS

A new complete catalogue of all Unesco publications in print is now available. It carries a special section on publications devoted to adult and fundamental education. Any of the agents listed on the inside back cover of this issue of the Bulletin will be pleased to supply a copy of the catalogue on request.

